

The World's Great Events

An Indexed History of the World
from Earliest Times to the Present Day



ILLUSTRATED



VOLUME SIX

From A.D. 1792 to A.D. 1857

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CONTENTS

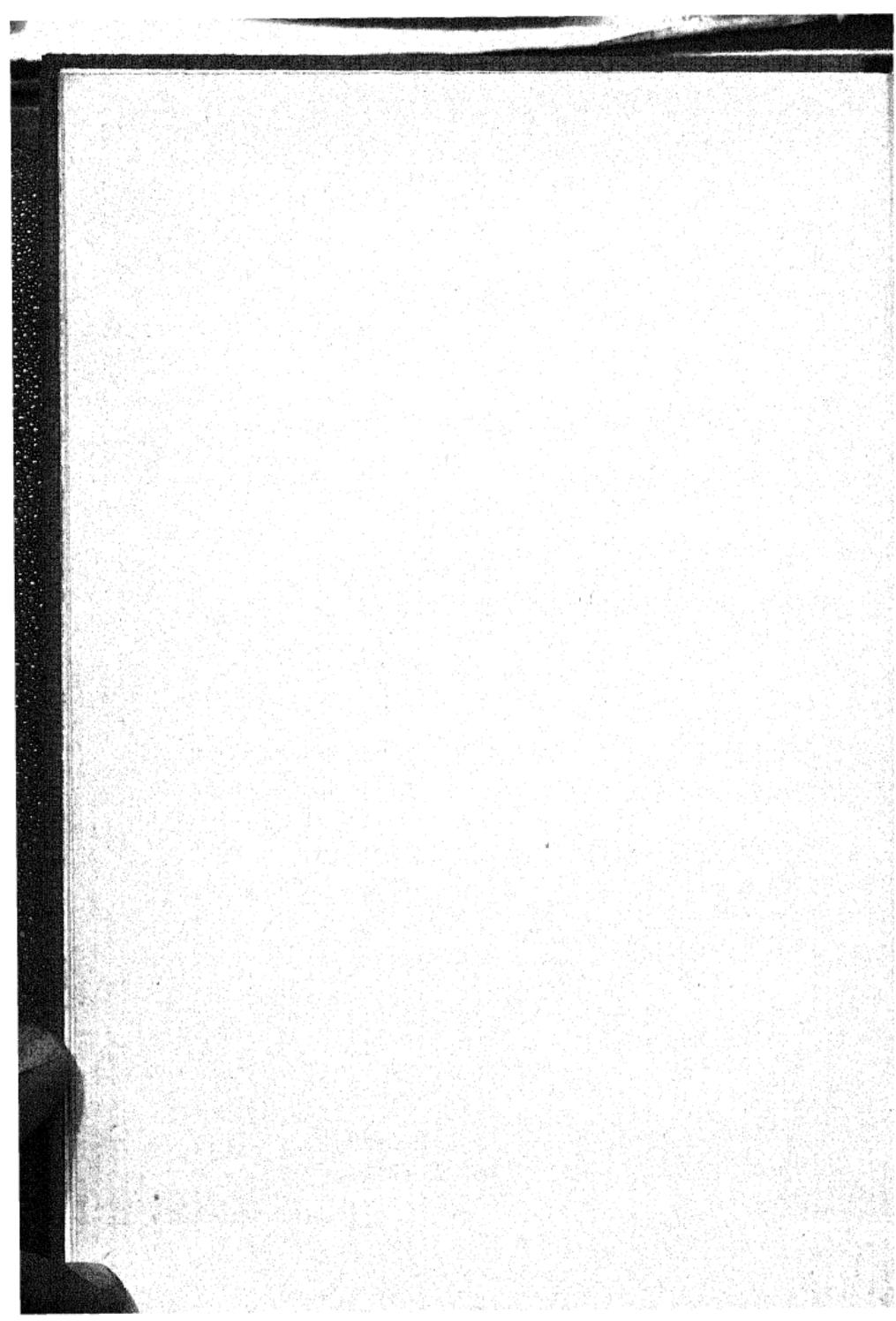
VOLUME SIX

FROM A.D. 1792 TO A.D. 1857

	PAGE
THE BATTLE OF VALMY (A.D. 1792)..... E. S. Creasy	1
THE REIGN OF TERROR (A.D. 1793-1794)..... Hippolyte Adolphe Taine	15
THE DIRECTOIRE (A.D. 1795-1799)..... Sir Archibald Alison	29
THE DECLINE AND FALL OF VENICE (A.D. 1797)..... J. C. L. De Sismondi	45
THE BATTLE OF THE NILE (A.D. 1798)..... Robert Southey	57
THE SIEGE OF ACRE (A.D. 1799)..... J. R. Miller	71
THE FIRST CONSUL (A.D. 1799)..... William Francis Collier	83
THE INVENTION OF THE STEAMBOAT (A.D. 1801-1807)..... James Renwick	91
THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR (A.D. 1805)..... Charles Alan Fyffe	105
THE GREAT TRIUMPHS OF NAPOLEON (A.D. 1805-1812)..... William Francis Collier	113

	PAGE
THE MOSCOW CAMPAIGN (A.D. 1812).....	121
Charles Alan Fyffe	
THE BATTLE OF VITTORIA (A.D. 1813).....	141
Sir Archibald Alison	
THE BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE (A.D. 1813).....	155
James Fenimore Cooper	
THE DOWNFALL OF NAPOLEON (A.D. 1815).....	165
Sutherland Menzies	
WESTERN EUROPE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE (A.D. 1815-1825)....	177
Richard Lodge	
WAR OF GREEK INDEPENDENCE (A.D. 1821-1832).....	201
W. Alison Phillips	
MODERN ILLUMINATION	213
Alfred Russel Wallace	
THE CONQUEST OF ALGERIA (A.D. 1830-1857).....	219
David Kay	
THE BEGINNING OF FREE TRADE (A.D. 1838-1842).....	233
Robert Mackenzie	
THE OPENING OF CHINA (A.D. 1839-1860).....	241
James Legge	
THE DISCOVERY OF THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE (A.D. 1845-1847)....	249
Albert Hastings Markham	
THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA (A.D. 1847-1849).....	259
James Schouler	
THE FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1848.....	269
W. A. Taylor	
THE REVOLUTION OF 1848.....	277
W. Alison Phillips	
THE GREAT EXHIBITION (A.D. 1851).....	289
Sir Theodore Martin	

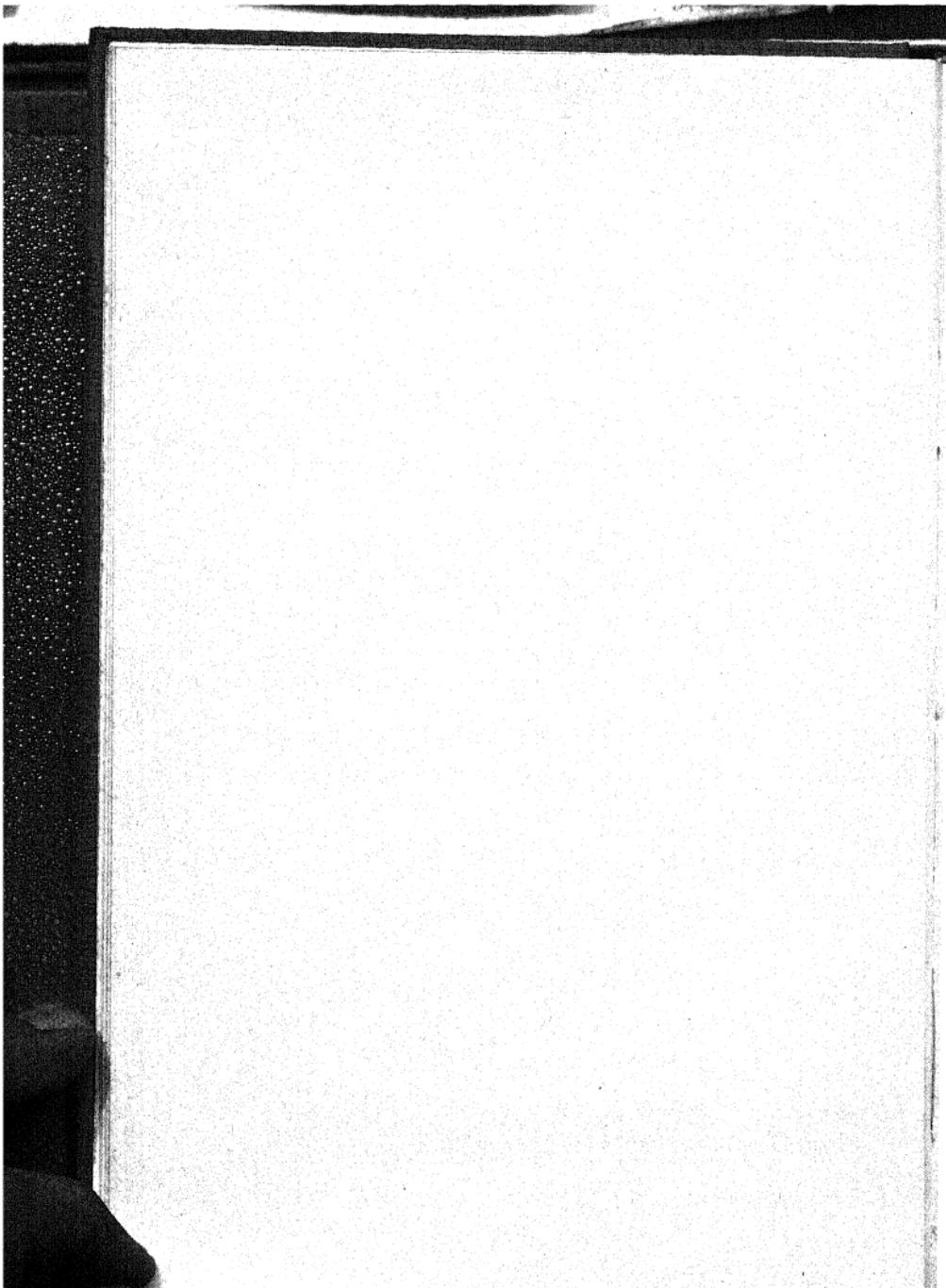
	PAGE
MODERN INVENTIONS	299
Robert Mackenzie	
THE SECOND REPUBLIC AND THE SECOND EMPIRE IN FRANCE (A.D. 1850-1852)	311
Richard Lodge	
THE OPENING OF JAPAN (A.D. 1853-1854).....	321
Francis Ottiwell Adams	
THE CRIMEAN WAR (A.D. 1854-1856).....	329
Justin McCarthy	
THE BATTLE OF INKERMAN (A.D. 1854).....	347
A. W. Kinglake	



ILLUSTRATIONS

VOLUME SIX

THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.....	<i>Frontispiece</i>
<i>From the painting by Meissonier</i>	
	FACING PAGE
SUMMONS FOR THE VICTIMS OF THE REIGN OF TERROR.....	24
<i>From the painting by Muller</i>	
NAPOLEON CROWNING JOSEPHINE EMPRESS OF THE FRENCH.....	88
<i>From the painting by David</i>	
OFFICERS OF THE FRENCH ARMY SWEARING ALLEGIANCE TO THE EMPEROR	120
<i>From the painting by David</i>	
FRIEDLAND—1807	136
<i>From the painting by Meissonier</i>	
A SKIRMISH BETWEEN THE COSSACKS AND THE IMPERIAL BODY- GUARD	152
<i>From the painting by Detaille</i>	
THE DEFENSE OF PARIS AGAINST THE PRUSSIANS AND AUSTRIANS... .	168
<i>From the painting by Vernet</i>	
“SCOTLAND FOR EVER!”—CHARGE OF THE FAMOUS SCOTS GREYS AT... .	
WATERLOO	216
<i>From the painting by Elizabeth Butler Thompson</i>	



THE BATTLE OF VALMY

(A.D. 1792)

E. S. CREASY

FRANCE now calls herself a republic. She first assumed that title on the 20th of September, 1792, on the very day on which the battle of Valmy was fought and won. To that battle the democratic spirit which in 1848, as well as in 1792, proclaimed the Republic in Paris, owed its preservation, and it is thence that the imperishable activity of its principles may be dated.

France becomes a republic.

Far different seemed the prospects of democracy in Europe on the eve of that battle, and far different would have been the present position and influence of the French nation, if Brunswick's columns had charged with more boldness, or the lines of Dumouriez resisted with less firmness. When France, in 1792, declared war with the great powers of Europe, she was far from possessing that splendid military organization which the experience of a few revolutionary campaigns taught her to as-

Condition
of the
French
Army.

sume. The army of the old monarchy had, during the latter part of the reign of Louis XV., sunk into gradual decay, both in numerical force and in efficiency of equipment and spirit. The laurels gained by the auxiliary regiments which Louis XVI. sent to the American war did but little to restore the general tone of the army. The insubordination and license which the revolt of the French guards, and the participation of other troops in many of the first excesses of the Revolution, introduced among the soldiery, were soon rapidly disseminated through all the ranks. Under the Legislative Assembly, every complaint of the soldier against his officer, however frivolous or ill-founded, was listened to with eagerness and investigated with partiality, on the principles of liberty and equality. Discipline accordingly became more and more relaxed; and the dissolution of several of the old corps, under the pretext of their being tainted with an aristocratic feeling, aggravated the confusion and inefficiency of the war department. Many of the most effective regiments during the last period of the monarchy had consisted of foreigners. These had either been slaughtered in defence of the throne against insurrections, like the Swiss, or had been disbanded, and had crossed the frontier to recruit the forces which were assembling for the invasion of France. Above all, the emigration of the *noblesse* had stripped the French army of nearly all its officers of high rank, and of the greatest portion of its subalterns. Above twelve thousand of the

high-born youth of France, who had been trained to regard military command as their exclusive patrimony, and to whom the nation had been accustomed to look up as its natural guides and champions in the storm of war, were now marshalled beneath the banner of Condé and the other emigrant princes for the overthrow of the French armies and the reduction of the French capital. Their successors in the French regiments and brigades had as yet acquired neither skill nor experience; they possessed neither self-reliance, nor the respect of the men who were under them.

Such was the state of the wrecks of the old army; but the bulk of the forces with which France began the war consisted of raw insurrectionary levies, which were even less to be depended on. The Carmagnoles, as the revolutionary volunteers were called, flocked, indeed, readily to the frontier from every department when the war was proclaimed, and the fierce leaders of the Jacobins shouted that the country was in danger. They were full of zeal and courage, "heated and excited by the scenes of the Revolution, and inflamed by the florid eloquence, the songs, dances, and signal-words with which it had been celebrated." But they were utterly undisciplined, and turbulently impatient of superior authority or systematic control. Many ruffians, also, who were sullied with participation in the most sanguinary horrors of Paris, joined the camps and were pre-eminent alike for misconduct before the enemy and for savage insubordi-

The Carmagnoles.

Insubordination of the army.

nation against their own officers. On one occasion during the campaign of Valmy, eight battalions of federates, intoxicated with massacre and sedition, joined the forces under Dumouriez, and soon threatened to uproot all discipline, saying openly that the ancient officers were traitors, and that it was necessary to purge the army, as they had Paris, of its aristocrats. Dumouriez posted these battalions apart from the others, placed a strong force of cavalry behind them and two pieces of cannon on their flank. Then, affecting to review them, he halted at the head of the line, surrounded by all his staff, and an escort of a hundred hussars. "Fellows," he said, "for I will not call you either citizens or soldiers, you see before you this artillery, behind you this cavalry; you are stained with crimes, and I do not tolerate here assassins or executioners. I know that there are scoundrels among you charged to excite you to crime. Drive them from among you, or denounce them to me, for I shall hold you responsible for their conduct."

The French invade Flanders.

In the hopes of profiting by the unprepared state of Austria, then the mistress of the Netherlands, the French opened the campaign of 1792, by an invasion of Flanders, with forces whose muster-rolls showed a numerical overwhelming superiority to the enemy, and seemed to promise a speedy conquest of that old battlefield of Europe. But the first flash of an Austrian sabre or the first sound of an Austrian gun was enough to discomfit the French. Their first corps, four thousand strong, that

advanced from Lille across the frontier, came suddenly upon a far inferior detachment of the Austrian garrison of Tournay. Not a shot was fired, nor a bayonet levelled. With one simultaneous cry of Panic, the French broke and ran headlong back to Lille, where they completed the specimen of insubordination which they had given in the field by murdering their general and several of their chief officers. On the same day, another division under Biron, mustering ten thousand sabres and bayonets, saw a few Austrian skirmishers reconnoitring their position. The French advanced posts had scarcely given and received a volley, and only a few balls from the enemy's field-pieces had fallen among the lines, when two regiments of French dragoons raised the cry "We are betrayed," galloped off, and were followed in disgraceful rout by the rest of the whole army. Similar panics, or repulses almost equally discreditable, occurred whenever Rochambeau, or Luckner, or Lafayette, the earliest French generals in the war, brought their troops into the presence of the enemy.

Meanwhile the allied sovereigns had gradually collected on the Rhine a veteran and finely disciplined army for the invasion of France, which for numbers, equipment, and martial renown, both of generals and men, was equal to any that Germany had ever sent forth to conquer. Their design was to strike boldly and decisively at the heart of France, and, penetrating the country through the Ardennes, to proceed by Châlons upon

*Cowardice
of the
untrained
troops.*

The allies cross the French frontier.

Paris. The obstacles that lay in their way seemed insignificant. The disorder and imbecility of the French armies had been even augmented by the forced flight of Lafayette and a sudden change of generals. The only troops posted on or near the track by which the allies were about to advance were the 23,000 men at Sedan, whom Lafayette had commanded, and a corps of 20,000 near Metz, the command of which had just been transferred from Luckner to Kellermann. There were only three fortresses which it was necessary for the allies to capture or mask—Sedan, Longwy, and Verdun. The defences and stores of all these three were known to be wretchedly dismantled and insufficient; and when once these feeble barriers were overcome and Châlons reached, a fertile and unprotected country seemed to invite the invaders to that "military promenade to Paris" which they gayly talked of accomplishing.

At the end of July, the allied army, having fully completed all preparations for the campaign, broke up from its cantonments, and, marching from Luxembourg upon Longwy, crossed the French frontier. Sixty thousand Prussians, trained in the schools, and many of them under the eye of the great Frederick, heirs of the glories of the Seven Years' War, and universally esteemed the best troops in Europe, marched in one column against the central point of attack. Forty-five thousand Austrians, the greater part of whom were picked troops, and had served in the recent Turkish war, supplied two for-

Troops of the allies.

midable corps that supported the flanks of the Prussians. There was also a powerful body of Hessians; and leagued with the Germans against the Parisian democracy came 15,000 of the noblest and the bravest among the sons of France. In these corps of emigrants, many of the highest born of the French nobility, scions of houses whose chivalric trophies had for centuries filled Europe with renown, served as rank and file.

Over this imposing army the allied sovereigns placed as generalissimo the Duke of Brunswick, one of the minor reigning princes of Germany, a statesman of no mean capacity, and who had acquired in the Seven Years' War a military reputation second only to that of the great Frederick himself.

Moving majestically forward, the allies appeared before Longwy on the 20th of August, and the dispirited and despondent garrison opened the gates of that fortress to them after the first shower of bombs. On the 2d of September, the still more important stronghold of Verdun capitulated after scarcely the shadow of resistance.

Brunswick's superior force was now interposed between Kellermann's troops on the left and the other French army near Sedan, which Lafayette's flight had, for a time, left destitute of a commander. It was in the power of the German general, by striking with an overwhelming mass to the right and left, to crush in succession each of these weak armies, and the allies might then have marched irresistibly and unresisted upon Paris.

*Longwy
captured.*

*Verdun
capitulates.*

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c
F
f

Dumouriez checks the Prussians.

Description of L'Argonne.

Dumouriez occupies the passes.

But at this crisis Dumouriez, the new commander-in-chief of the French, arrived at the camp near Sedan, and commenced a series of movements by which he reunited the dispersed and disorganized forces of his country, checked the Prussian columns at the very moment when the last obstacle to their triumph seemed to have given way, and finally rolled back the tide of invasion far across the enemy's frontier.

The French fortresses had fallen; but nature herself still offered to brave and vigorous defenders of the land the means of opposing a barrier to the progress of the allies. A ridge of broken ground, called the Argonne, extends from the vicinity of Sedan toward the southwest for about fifteen or sixteen leagues. The country of L'Argonne has now been cleared and drained; but in 1792 it was thickly wooded, and the lower portions of its unequal surface were filled with rivulets and marshes. It thus presented a natural barrier of from four to five leagues broad, which was absolutely impenetrable to an army, except by a few defiles, such as an inferior force might easily fortify and defend. Dumouriez succeeded in marching his army from Sedan behind the Argonne, and in occupying its passes, while the Prussians still lingered on the northeastern side of the forest line. Ordering Kellermann to wheel round from Metz to St. Menehould, and the reinforcements from the interior and extreme north also to concentrate at that spot, Dumouriez trusted to assemble a powerful force in the

rear of the southwest extremity of the Argonne, while with the twenty-five thousand men under his immediate command he held the enemy at bay before the passes, or forced him to a long circumvolution round one extremity of the forest ridge, during which favorable opportunities of assailing his flank were almost certain to occur. Dumouriez fortified the principal defiles, and boasted of the Thermopylæ which he had found for the invaders; but the simile was nearly rendered fatally complete for the defending force. A pass, which was thought of inferior importance, had been but slightly manned, and an Austrian corps, under Clairfayt, forced it after some sharp fighting. Dumouriez with great difficulty saved himself from being enveloped and destroyed by the hostile columns that now pushed through the forest. But instead of despairing at the failure of his plans, and falling back into the interior, to be completely severed from Kellermann's army, to be hunted as a fugitive under the walls of Paris by the victorious Germans, and to lose all chance of ever rallying his dispirited troops, he resolved to cling to the difficult country in which the armies still were grouped, to force a junction with Kellermann and so place himself at the head of a force which the invaders would not dare to disregard, and by which he might drag them back from the advance on Paris, which he had not been able to bar. Accordingly, by a rapid movement to the south, during which, in his own words, "France was within a hair's-breadth of destruc-

*The Aus-
trians gain
a pass.*

*Retreat
of Dumou-
riez.*

tion," and after with difficulty checking several panics of his troops, in which they ran by thousands at the sight of a few Prussian hussars, Dumouriez succeeded in establishing headquarters in a strong position at St. Menehould protected by the marshes and shallows of the rivers Aisne and Aube, beyond which, to the northwest, rose a firm and elevated plateau, called Dampierre's camp, admirably situated for commanding the road by Châlons to Paris, and where he intended to post Kellermann's army so soon as it came up.

Kellermann halts.

The news of the retreat of Dumouriez from the Argonne passes, and the panic flight of some divisions of his troops, spread rapidly throughout the country, and Kellermann, who believed that his comrade's army had been annihilated, and feared to fall among the victorious masses of the Prussians, had halted on his march from Metz when almost close to St. Menehould. He had actually commenced a retrograde movement when couriers from his commander-in-chief checked him from the fatal course: and then continuing to wheel round the rear and left flank of the troops at St. Menehould, Kellermann, with twenty thousand of the army of Metz, and some thousands of volunteers, who had joined him in the march, made his appearance to the west of Dumouriez on the very evening when Westermann and Thouvenot, two of the staff officers of Dumouriez, galloped in with the tidings that Brunswick's army had come through the upper passes of the Argonne in full force

THE BATTLE OF VALMY

and was deploying on the heights of La Lune, a chain of eminences that stretched obliquely from southwest to northeast, opposite the high ground which Dumouriez held, also opposite, but at a shorter distance from the position which Kellermann was designed to occupy.

The allies were now, in fact, much nearer to Paris than were the French troops themselves; but, as Dumouriez had foreseen, Brunswick deemed it unsafe to march upon the capital with so large a hostile force left in his rear, between his advancing columns and his base of operations. The young King of Prussia, who was in the allied camp, and the emigrant princes, eagerly advocated an instant attack upon the nearest French general. Kellermann had laid himself unnecessarily open, by advancing beyond Dampierre's camp, which Dumouriez had designed for him, and moving across the Aube to the plateau of Valmy, a post inferior in strength and space to that which he had left, and which brought him close upon the Prussian lines, leaving him separated by a dangerous interval from the troops under Dumouriez himself. It seemed easy for the Prussian army to overwhelm him while thus isolated, and then they might surround and crush Dumouriez at their leisure.

Accordingly, the right wing of the allied army moved forward in the gray of the morning of the 20th of September, to gain Kellermann's left flank and rear, and cut him off from retreat upon Châlons, while the rest of the army, moving from the heights of La Lune, which

*Advance of
Brunswick.*

*Keller-
mann's
open
position.*

The plateau of Valmy.

Position of the French army.

here converge semicircularly round the plateau of Valmy, were to assail his position in front, and interpose between him and Dumouriez. An unexpected collision between some of the advanced cavalry on each side in the low ground warned Kellermann of the enemy's approach. Dumouriez had not been unobservant of the danger of his comrade, thus isolated and involved, and he had ordered up troops to support Kellermann on either flank in the event of his being attacked. These troops, however, moved forward slowly; and Kellermann's army, ranged on the plateau of Valmy, "projected like a cape into the midst of the lines of Prussian bayonets." A thick autumnal mist floated in waves of vapor over the plains and ravines that lay between the two armies, leaving only the crests and peaks of the hills glittering in the early light. About ten o'clock the fog began to clear off, and then the French from their promontory saw emerging from the white wreaths of mist, and glittering in the sunshine, the countless Prussian cavalry, which were to envelop them as in a net if once driven from their position, the solid columns of the infantry, that moved forward as if animated by a single will, the bristling batteries of the artillery, and the glancing clouds of the Austrian light troops, fresh from their contests with the Spahis of the East.

Contrary to the expectation of both friends and foes, the French infantry held their ground steadily under the fire of the Prussian guns, which thundered on them from

La Lune, and their own artillery replied with equal spirit and greater effect on the denser masses of the allied army. Thinking that the Prussians were slackening in their fire, Kellermann formed a column in charging order, and dashed down into the valley in the hope of capturing some of the nearest guns of the enemy. A masked battery opened its fire on the French column, and drove it back in disorder, Kellermann having his horse shot under him, and being with difficulty carried off by his men. The Prussian columns now advanced in turn. The French artillerymen now began to waver and desert their posts, but were rallied by the efforts and example of their officers, and Kellermann, reorganizing the line of his infantry, took his station in the ranks on foot, and called out to his men to let the enemy come close up, and then to charge them with the bayonet. The troops caught the enthusiasm of their general, and a cheerful shout of "Vive la nation!" taken up by one battalion from another pealed across the valley to the assailants. The Prussians hesitated at a charge uphill against a force that seemed so resolute and formidable; they halted for a while in the hollow, and then slowly retreated up their own side of the valley.

Indignant at being thus repulsed by such a foe, the King of Prussia formed the flower of his men in person, and, riding along the column, bitterly reproached them with letting their standard be thus humiliated. Then he led them on again to the attack, marching in the front

The French charge.

*Retreat
of the
Prussians.*

Victorious France.

line, and seeing his staff mowed down around him by the deadly fire which the French artillery reopened. But the troops sent by Dumouriez were now co-operating effectually with Kellermann, and that general's own men, flushed by success, presented a firmer front than ever. Again the Prussians retreated, leaving eight hundred dead behind, and at nightfall the French remained victors on the heights of Valmy.

All hopes of crushing the Revolutionary armies, and of the promenade to Paris, had now vanished, though Brunswick lingered long in the Argonne, till distress and sickness wasted away his once splendid force, and finally but a mere wreck of it recrossed the frontier. France, meanwhile, felt that she possessed a giant's strength, and like a giant did she use it. Before the close of that year all Belgium obeyed the National Convention at Paris, and the kings of Europe, after the lapse of eighteen centuries, trembled once more before a conquering military republic.

THE REIGN OF TERROR

(A.D. 1793-1794)

HIPPOLYTE ADOLPHE TAINÉ

LET us trace the progress of the homicidal idea in the mass of the party. It lies at the very bottom of the revolutionary creed. Collot d'Herbois, two months after this, aptly says in the Jacobin tribune: "The second of September is the great article in the *credo* of our freedom." It is peculiar to the Jacobin to consider himself as a legitimate sovereign, and to treat his adversaries not as belligerents, but as criminals. They are guilty of *lèse-nation*; they are outlaws, fit to be killed at all times and places, and deserve extinction, even when no longer able or in a condition to do any harm. Consequently, on the 10th of August the Swiss Guards, who do not fire a gun and who surrender, the wounded lying on the ground, their surgeons, the palace domestics, are killed; and, worse still, persons like M. de Clermont-Tonnerre who pass quietly along the street. All this now called, in official phraseology, the justice of the people.—On the 11th, the Swiss Guards, collected in the *Feuill-*

The homicidal mania.

The Swiss Guards.

The "assassins of the people."

lants building, came near being massacred; the populace on the outside of it demand their heads; "it conceives the project of visiting all the prisons in Paris to take out the prisoners and administer prompt justice on them." —On the 12th, in the markets, "divers groups of the low class call Pétion a scoundrel," because "he saved the Swiss in the Palais Bourbon"; accordingly, "he and the Swiss must be hung to-day." —In these minds turned topsy-turvy, the actual, palpable truth gives way to its opposite; "the attack was not begun by them; the order to sound the tocsin came from the palace; it is the palace which was besieging the nation, and not the nation which was besieging the palace." The vanquished "are the assassins of the people," caught in the act; and on the 14th of August the Federates demand a court-martial "to avenge the death of their comrades." And even a court-martial will not answer: "It is not sufficient to mete out punishment for crimes committed on the 10th of August, but the vengeance of the people must be extended to all conspirators;" to that "Lafayette, who probably was not in Paris, *but who may have been there;*" to all the ministers, generals, judges, and other officials guilty of maintaining legal order wherever it has been maintained, and of not having recognized the Jacobin government before it came into being. Let them be brought before, not the ordinary courts, which are not to be trusted because they belong to the defunct régime, but before a specially organized tribunal, a sort of "*cham-*

bre ardente,” elected by the sections, that is to say, by a Jacobin minority. These improvised judges must give judgment on conviction, without appeal; there must be no preliminary examinations, no intervals of time between arrest and execution, no dilatory and protective formalities. And above all, the Assembly must be expeditious in passing the decree; “otherwise,” it is informed by a delegate from the Commune, “the tocsin will be rung at midnight and the general alarm sounded; for the people are tired of waiting to be avenged. Look out lest they do themselves justice!”—A moment more, new threats, and at a shorter date. “If the juries are not ready to act in two or three hours . . . great misfortunes will overtake Paris.”

In vain the new tribunal, instantly installed, hastens its work and guillotines three innocent persons in five days; it does not move fast enough. On the 23d of August one of the sections declares to the Commune in furious language that the people themselves, “wearied and indignant” with so many delays, mean to force open the prisons and massacre the inmates.—Not only do they harass the judges, but they force the accused into their presence. A deputation from the Commune and the Federates summons the Assembly “to transfer the criminals at Orleans to Paris, to undergo the penalty of their heinous crimes,” “otherwise,” says the orator, “we will not answer for the vengeance of the people.”

Fear is evidently an adjunct of hatred. The Jacobin

*The new
tribunal.*

The Jacobin rabble.

rabble is vaguely conscious of its inferior numbers, of its usurpation, of its danger, which increases in proportion as Brunswick draws near. It feels itself encamped over a mine, and if the mine should explode!—Since its adversaries are scoundrels they are capable of a sudden blow, of a plot, of a massacre; never itself having done anything else, it conceives no other idea; and, through an inevitable transposition of thought, it imputes to them the murderous intentions obscurely wrought out in the dark recesses of its own disturbed brain.

Murder under legal forms.

Up to this time, in slaughtering or having it done, it was always as insurrectionists in the street; now, it is in places of imprisonment, as magistrates and functionaries, according to the registers of a lock-up, after proofs of identity and on snap judgments, by paid executioners, in the name of public security, methodically, and in cool blood, almost with the same regularity as subsequently under "the revolutionary government." September, indeed, is the beginning of it, the abridgment of it and the type; they will not do otherwise or better in the best days of the guillotine. Only, as they are as yet poorly supplied with tools, they are obliged to use pikes instead of the guillotine, and, as diffidence is not yet entirely gone, the chiefs conceal themselves behind manœuvrings. Nevertheless, we can track them, take them in the act, and we possess their autographs; they planned, commanded, and conducted the operation. On the 30th of August, the Commune decided that the section should

try accused persons, and, on the 2d of September, five trusty sections reply to it by resolving that the accused shall be murdered. The same day, September 2, Marat takes his place on the Committee of Supervision. The same day, September 2, Panis and Sergent sign the commissions of "their comrades," Maillard and associates, for the Abbaye, and "order them to judge," that is to say, kill the prisoners. The same and the following days, at La Force, three members of the Commune, Hébert, Monneuse, and Rossignol, preside in turn over the assassin court. The same day, a commissary of the Committee of Supervision comes and demands a dozen men of the Sans-Culottes section to help massacre the priests of Saint Firmin. The same day, a commissary of the Commune visits the different prisons during the slayings, and finds that "things are going on well in all of them." The same day, at five o'clock in the afternoon, Billaud-Varennes, deputy-attorney for the Commune, "in his well-known puce-colored coat and black peruke," walking over the corpses, says to the Abbaye butchers: "Fellow-citizens, you are immolating your enemies, you are performing your duty!" That night he returns, highly commends them, and ratifies his promise of the wages "agreed upon"; on the following day, at noon, he again returns, congratulates them more warmly, allows each one twenty francs, and urges them to keep on.—In the meantime, Santerre, summoned to the staff-office by Roland, hypocritically deplores his vol-

*The
September
massacres*

*Billaud-
Varennes.*

*Paid
assassins.*

unitary inability, and persists in not giving the orders, without which the National Guard can not stir a step. At the sections, the presidents, Chénier, Ceyrat, Boula, Mommara, Collot d'Herbois, send away or fetch their victims under pikes. At the Commune, the council-general votes 12,000 francs, to be taken from the dead, to defray the expenses of the operation. In the Committee of Supervision, Marat sends off despatches to spread murder through the departments.—It is evident that the leaders and their subordinates are unanimous, each at his post and in the service he performs; through the spontaneous co-operation of the whole party, the command from above meets the impulse from below; both unite in a common murderous disposition, the work being done with the more precision in proportion to its being easily done.—
Jailers' orders. Jailers have received orders to open the prison doors, and give themselves no concern. Through an excess of precaution, the knives and forks of the prisoners have been taken away from them. One by one, on their names being called, they will march out like oxen in a slaughter-house, while about twenty butchers to each prison, from two to three hundred in all, will suffice to do the work.

But, in their own eyes, they are so many kings; "sovereignty is committed to their hands," their powers are unlimited; whoever doubts this is a traitor, and is properly punished; he must be put out of the way; while, for royal councillors, they take maniacs and knaves, who, through monomania or calculation, preach that doc-

trine, just the same as a negro king surrounded by white slave dealers, who urge him into raids, and by black sorcerers, who prompt him to massacre. How could such a man with such guides, and in such an office, be retarded by the formalities of justice, or by the distinctions of equity? Equity and justice are the elaborate products of civilization, while he is merely a political savage. In vain are the innocent recommended to his mercy! "Look here, citizen, do you, too, want to set us to sleep? Suppose that those cursed Prussian and Austrian beggars were in Paris, would they pick out the guilty? Wouldn't they strike right and left, the same as the Swiss did on the 10th of August? Very well, I can't make speeches, but I don't set anybody to sleep. I say, I am the father of a family—I have a wife and five children that I mean to leave here for the section to look after, while I go and fight the enemy. But I have no idea that while I am gone these villains here in prison and other villains, who would come and let them out, should cut the throats of my wife and children. I have three boys who I hope will some day be more useful to their country than those rascals you want to save. Anyhow, all that can be done is to let 'em out and give them arms, and we will fight 'em on an equal footing. Whether I die here or on the frontiers, scoundrels would kill me all the same, and I will sell my life dearly. But, whether it is done by me or by some one else, the prison shall be cleaned out of those cursed beggars, there, now!" At this a general cry

Products of civilization.

No mercy.

is heard: "He's right! No mercy! Let us go in!" All that the crowd assent to is an improvised tribunal, the reading of the jailer's register, and prompt judgment; condemnation and slaughter must follow, according to the famous Commune, which simplifies things.—There is an other simplification still more formidable, which is the condemnation and slaughter by categories. Any title suffices, Swiss, priest, officer, or servant of the King, "the moths of the civil list"; wherever a lot of priests or Swiss are found, it is not worth while to have a trial, as they can be killed in a heap.—Reduced to this, the operation is adapted to the operators; the arms of the new sovereign are as strong as his mind is weak, and, through an inevitable adaptation, he degrades his work to the level of his faculties.

Degradation of the agent.

His work, in its turn, degrades and perverts him. No man, and especially a man of the people, rendered pacific by an old civilization, can, with impunity, become at one stroke both sovereign and executioner. In vain does he work himself up against the condemned and heap insult on them to augment his fury; he is dimly conscious of committing a great crime, and his soul, like that of Macbeth, "is full of scorpions." Through a terrible self-shrinking, he hardens himself against the inborn, hereditary impulses of humanity; these resist while he becomes exasperated, and, to stifle them, there is no other way but to "sup on horrors," by adding murder to murder. For murder, especially as he practices it, that is to say,

with a naked sword on defenceless people, introduces into his animal and moral machine two extraordinary and disproportionate emotions which unsettle it: on the one hand, a sensation of omnipotence exercised uncontrolled, unimpeded, without danger, on human life, on throbbing flesh, and, on the other hand, an interest in bloody and diversified death, accompanied with an ever new series of contortions and exclamations. Formerly, in the Roman circus, one could not tear one's self away from it—the spectacle once seen, the spectator always returned to see it again. Just at this time each prison court is a circus, and what makes it worse is that the spectators are likewise actors.—Thus, for them, two fiery liquids mingle together in one draught. To moral intoxication is added physical intoxication, wine in profusion, bumpers at every pause, revelry over corpses; and we see rising out of this unnatural creature the demon of Dante, at once brutal and refined, not merely a destroyer, but, again, an executioner, contriver and calculator of suffering, and radiant and joyous over the evil it accomplishes.

The prison court a Roman circus.

Moral and physical intoxication.

They are joyous. They dance around each new corpse, and sing the *carmagnole*; they arouse the people of the quarter "to amuse them," and that they may have their share of "the fine fête," benches are arranged for "gentlemen," and others for "ladies": the latter, with greater curiosity, are additionally anxious to contemplate at their ease "the aristocrats" already slain; consequently, lights

are required, and one is placed on the breast of each corpse.

The lust of blood.

Meanwhile, slaughter continues, and is carried to perfection. A butcher at the Abbaye complains that "the aristocrats die too quick, and that those only who strike first have the pleasure of it;" henceforth they are to be struck with the backs of the swords only, and made to run between two rows of their butchers, like soldiers formerly running a gantlet. If there happens to be a person well known, it is agreed to take more care in prolonging the torment. At La Force, the Federates who come for M. de Rulhières swear "with frightful imprecations that they will cut off the first man's head who gives him a thrust with a pike;" the first thing is to strip him naked, and then, for half an hour, with the flat of their sabres, they cut and slash him until he drips with blood and is "skinned to his entrails."—All the unfettered instincts that live in the lowest depths of the heart start from the human abyss at once, not alone the heinous instincts with their fangs, but likewise the foulest with their slaver, but becoming more furious against women whose noble or infamous repute makes them conspicuous; on Madame de Lamballe, the Queen's friend; on Madame Desrues, widow of the famous poisoner; the flower-girl of the Palais Royal, who, two years before, had mutilated her lover, a French guardsman, in a fit of jealousy.

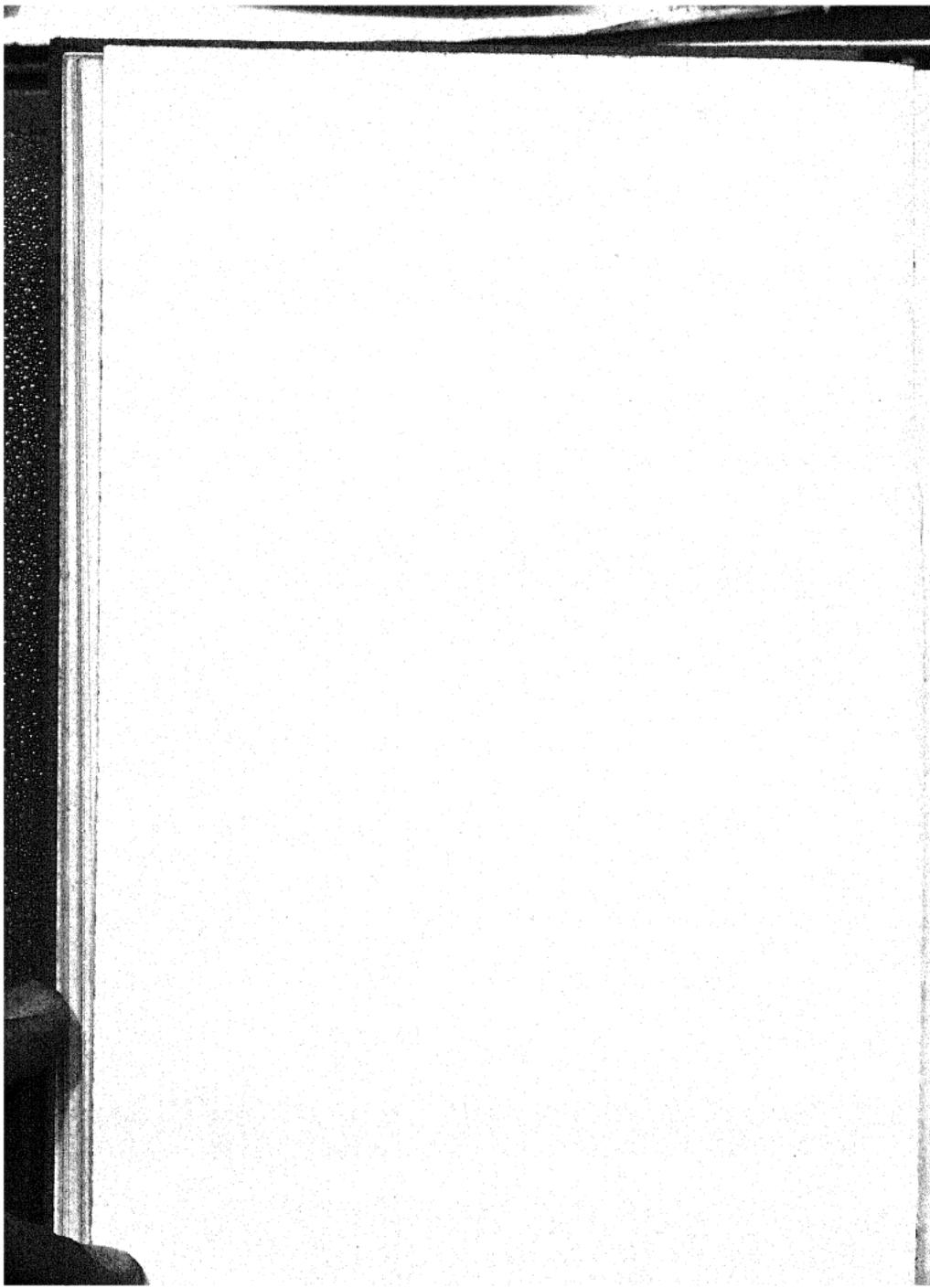
Delight in torture.

They kill and they drink, and drink and kill again.



SUMMONS FOR THE VICTIMS OF THE REIGN OF TERROR (Page 20)

FROM THE PAINTING BY MULLER



Weariness comes and stupor begins. One of them, a wheelwright's apprentice, has despatched sixteen for his share; another "has labored so hard at this merchandise as to leave the blade of his sabre sticking in it"; "I was more tired," says a Federate, "with two hours pulling limbs to pieces, right and left, than any mason any two days plastering a wall." The first excitement is gone, and now they strike automatically. Some of them fall asleep stretched out on benches. Others, huddled together, sleep off the fumes of their wine, removed on one side. The exhalation from the carnage is so strong that the president of the civil committee faints in his chair, while the odor of the drinking-bout is equal to that of the charnel-house. A heavy, dull state of torpor gradually overcomes their clouded brains, the last glimmerings of reason dying out one by one, like the smoky lights on the already cold breasts of the corpses lying around them. Through the stupor spreading over the faces of butchers and cannibals, we see appearing that of the idiot. It is the revolutionary idiot, in which all conceptions, save two, have vanished, two fixed, rudimentary, and mechanical ideas, one destruction and the other that of public safety. With no others in his empty head, these blend together through an irresistible attraction, and the effect proceeding from their contact may be imagined. "Is there anything else to do?" asks one of these butchers in the deserted court. "If that is all," reply

*Orgies of
wine and
blood.*

*Arrival of
the idiot.*

a couple of women at the gate, "*you must start something more*," and, naturally, this is done.

Cleaning out the prisons.

As the prisons are to be cleaned out, it is as well to clean them all out, and do it at once. After the Swiss, priests, the aristocrats, and the "white-skin gentlemen," there remain convicts and those confined through the ordinary channels of justice, robbers, assassins, and those sentenced to the galleys in the Conciergerie, in the Châtelet, and in the Tour St. Bernard with branded women, vagabonds, old beggars, and boys confined in Bicêtre and the Salpêtrière. They are good for nothing, cost something to feed, and, probably, cherish evil designs. At the Salpêtrière, for example, the wife of Desrues, the poisoner, is, assuredly, like himself, "cunning, wicked, and capable of anything;" she must be furious at being in prison; if she could, she would set fire to Paris; she must have said so; she did say it—one more sweep of the broom.—This time, as the job is more foul, the broom is wielded by fouler hands; among those who seize the handle are the frequenters of jails. The butchers at the Abbaye, especially toward the close, had already committed thefts; here, at the Châtelet and the Conciergerie, they carry away "everything that seems to them suitable," even to the clothes of the dead, prison sheets and coverlids, even the small savings of the jailers, and, besides this, they enlist their cronies in the service. "Out of thirty-six prisoners set free, many were assassins and robbers, associated with them by the butchers. There

Madame Desrues.

Robbing the dead.

were also seventy-five women, confined, in part, for larceny, who promised to faithfully serve their liberators." Later on, indeed, these are to become, at the Jacobin and Cordeliers clubs, the *tricoteuses* who fill their tribunes.—At the Salpêtrière, "all the bullies of Paris, former spies, . . . libertines, the rascals of France and all Europe, prepare beforehand for the operation," and rape alternates with massacre.—Thus far, at least, slaughter has been seasoned with robbery, and the grossness of eating and drinking; at Bicêtre, however, it is crude butchery, the carnivorous instinct alone satisfying itself. Among other prisoners are forty-three youths of the lowest class, from seventeen to nineteen years of age, placed there for correction by their parents, or by those to whom they are bound; one need only look at them to see that they are genuine Parisian scamps, the apprentices of vice and misery, the future recruits for the reigning band, and these the band falls on, beating them to death with clubs. At this age life is tenacious, and, no life being harder to take, it requires extra efforts to despatch them. "In that corner," said a jailer, "they made a mountain of their bodies."

There are six days and five nights of uninterrupted butchery, 171 murders at the Abbaye, 169 at La Force, 223 at the Châtelet, 328 at the Conciergerie, 73 at the Tour-Saint-Bernard, 120 at the Carmelites, 79 at Saint Firmin, 170 at Bicêtre, 35 at the Salpêtrière; among the dead, 250 priests, 3 bishops or archbishops, general offi-

Crude
butchery.

Number of
the victims.

M. de Brissac killed.

cers, magistrates, one former minister, one royal princess, belonging to the best names in France; and, on the other side, one negro, several low-class women, young scapegraces, convicts, and poor old men. What man now, little or big, does not feel himself under the knife? —And all the more because the band has grown larger. Fournier, Lazowski, and Bécard, the chiefs of robbers and assassins, return from Orleans with fifteen hundred cutthroats. On the way they kill M. de Brissac, M. de Lessert, and forty-two others accused of *lèse-nation*, whom they wrested from their judges' hands, and then, by way of surplus, "following the example of Paris," twenty-one prisoners taken from the Versailles prisons. At Paris, the Minister of Justice thanks them, the Commune congratulates them, and the sections feast them, and embrace them.—Can anybody doubt that they were ready to begin again?

*Pichegru
conquers
Holland.*

[In 1795, the Dauphin dies. England and Austria enter into an alliance and the French are driven across the Rhine. Pichegru conquers Holland; captures the Dutch fleet, and establishes a Batavian Republic. The British evacuate Holland. They capture the Cape of Good Hope.]

THE DIRECTOIRE

(A.D. 1795-1799)

SIR ARCHIBALD ALISON

MEANWHILE, the Convention proceeded rapidly with the formation of the new Constitution. This was the *third* which had been imposed upon the French people during the space of a few years: a sufficient proof of the danger of incautiously overturning long-established institutions. The Constitution of 1795 was very different from those which had preceded it, and gave striking proof of the altered condition of the public mind on the state of political affairs. Experience had now taught all classes that the chimera of perfect equality could not be attained; that the mass of the people are unfit for the exercise of political rights; that the contests of factions terminate, if the people are victorious, in the supremacy of the most depraved. The constitution which was framed under the influence of these sentiments differed widely from the democratic institutions of 1793. The ruinous error was now acknowledged of uniting the whole legislative powers in one as-

*The Constitution
of 1795.*

*The Five
Hundred
and the
Ancients.**The
executive
power.*

sembly, and enacting the most important laws without the intervention of any time to deliberate on their tendency, or recover from the excitement under which they may have originated. The legislative power, therefore, was divided into two councils, that of the Five Hundred and that of the Ancients. The Council of Five Hundred was intrusted with the sole power of originating laws; that of the Ancients with the power of passing or rejecting them; and to ensure the prudent discharge of this duty, no person could be a member of it till he had reached the age of forty years. No bill could pass till after it had been three times read, with an interval between each reading of at least five days.

The executive power, instead of being vested, as heretofore, in two committees, was lodged in the hands of five directors, nominated by the Council of Five Hundred, approved by that of the Ancients. They were liable to be impeached for their misconduct by the councils. Each individual was, by rotation, to be president during three months; and every year a fifth new director was to be chosen, in lieu of one who was bound to retire. The Directory thus constituted had the entire disposal of the army and finances, the appointment of all public functionaries, and the management of all public negotiations. They were lodged, during the period of their official duty, in the Palace of the Luxembourg, and attended by a guard of honor.

The privilege of electing members for the Legisla-

THE DIRECTOIRE

ture was taken away from the great body of the people, and confined to the colleges of delegates. Their meetings were called the Primary Assemblies; and, in order to ensure the influence of the middling ranks, the persons elected by the Primary Assemblies were themselves the electors of the members of the Legislature. All popular societies were interdicted, and the press declared absolutely free.

The formation of this Constitution, and its discussion in the assemblies of the people, to which it was submitted for consideration, excited the most violent agitation throughout France. Paris, as usual, took the lead. Its forty-eight sections were incessantly assembled, and the public effervescence resembled that of 1789. This was brought to its height by a decree of the assembly, declaring that two-thirds of the present Convention should form a part of the new Legislature, and that the electors should only fill up the remaining part. The citizens beheld with horror so large a proportion of a body, whose proceedings had deluged France with blood, still destined to reign over them. To accept the Constitution and reject this decree seemed the only way of getting free from their domination. The Thermidorian party had been entirely excluded from the committee of Eleven, to whom the formation of the new Constitution was intrusted, and, in revenge, they joined the assemblies of those who sought to counteract their ambition. The focus of the effervescence was the section Lepelletier, for-

*The
Primary
Assemblies.*

*Great
agitation
in Paris.*

*The focus
of effe-
vescence.*

*Agitation
of the
press.*

merly known by the name of that of the Filles de St. Thomas, the richest and most powerful in Paris, which, through all the changes of the Revolution, had steadily adhered to Royalist principles.

The Royalist committees of Paris, of which Le Maitre was the known agent, finding matters brought to this crisis, coalesced with the journals and the leaders of the sections. They openly accused the Convention of attempting to perpetuate their power, and of aiming at usurping the sovereignty of the people. The orators of the sections said at the bar of the assembly, "Deserve our choice—do not seek to command it; you have exercised an authority without bounds; you have united in yourselves all the powers, those of making laws, of revising them, of changing them, of executing them. Recollect how fatal military despotism was to the Roman Republic." The press of Paris teemed with pamphlets inveighing against the ambitious views of the Legislature, and the efforts of the sections were incessant to defeat their projects. The agitation of 1789 was renewed, but it was all now on the other side; the object now was, not to restrain the tyranny of the court, but repress the ambition of the delegates of the people.

"Will the Convention," said the Royalist orators, "never be satisfied? Is a reign of three years, fraught with more crimes than the whole annals of twenty other nations, not sufficient for those who rose into power under the auspices of the 10th of August and the 2d of

September? Is that power fit to repose under the shadow of the laws which has only lived in tempests? Let us not be deceived by the 9th Thermidor; the Bay of Quiberon, where Tallien bore so conspicuous a part, may show us that the thirst for blood is not extinguished even among those who overthrew Robespierre. The Convention has done nothing but destroy; shall we now intrust it with the work of conservation? What reliance can be placed on the monstrous coalition between the proscribers and the proscribed? Irreconcilable enemies to each other, they have only entered into this semblance of alliance in order to resist those who hate them—that is every man in France. It is we ourselves who have forced upon them those acts of tardy humanity, on which they now rely as a veil to their monstrous proceedings. But for our warm representations, the members *hors de la loi* would still have been wandering in exile, the seventy-three deputies still languishing in prison. Who but ourselves formed the faithful guard who saved them from the terrible faubourgs, to whom they had basely yielded their best members on the 31st of May? They now call upon us to select among its ranks those who should continue members, and form the two-thirds of the new assembly. Can two-thirds of the Convention be found who are not stained with blood? Can we ever forget that many of its basest acts passed *unanimously*, and that a majority of three hundred and sixty-one passed a vote which will be an eternal subject of mourning to France? Shall we admit

*The Convention
merely de-
structive.*

A majority of regicides.

a majority of regicides into the new assembly, intrust our liberty to cowards, our fortunes to the authors of so many acts of rapine, our lives to murderers? The Convention is only strong because it mixes up its crimes with the glories of our armies; let us separate them; let us leave the Convention its sins, and our soldiers their triumphs, and the world will speedily do justice to both."

Such discourses, incessantly repeated from the tribunes of forty-eight sections, violently shook the public mind in the capital. To give greater publicity to their sentiments, the orators repeated the same sentiments in addresses at the bar of the assembly, which were immediately circulated with rapidity through the departments. The effervescence in the south was at its height; many important cities and departments seemed already disposed to imitate the sections of the metropolis. The cities of Dreus and Chartres warmly seconded their wishes, while the sections of Orleans sent the following message: "Primary assemblies of Paris, Orleans is at your side, it advances on the same line; let your cry be resistance to oppression, hatred to usurpers, and we will second you."

Extreme agitation in Paris.

The Jeunesse Dorée.

The National Guard of Paris shared in the general excitation. The troops of the *Jeunesse Dorée* had inspired its members with part of their own exultation of feeling, and diminished much of their wonted timidity. Resistance to the tyrant was openly spoken of; the Convention compared to the Long Parliament, which shed the blood

of Charles I.; and the assistance of a Monk ardently looked for to consummate the work of restoration.

Surrounded by so many dangers, the Convention did not abate of its former energy. They had lost the Jacobins by their proscriptions, the Royalists by their ambition. What remained? The Army; and this terrible engine they resolved to employ, as the only means of establishing their power. They lost no time in submitting the Constitution to the soldiers, and by them it was unanimously adopted. Military men, accustomed to obey, and to take the lead from others, usually, except in periods of uncommon excitement, adopt any constitution which is recommended to them by their officers. A body of five thousand regular troops were assembled in the neighborhood of Paris, and their adhesion eagerly announced to the citizens. The Convention called to their support the Pretorian Guards; they little thought how soon they were to receive from them a master.

It soon appeared that not only the armies but a large majority of the departments had accepted the Constitution. The inhabitants of Paris, however, accustomed to take the lead in all public measures, were not discouraged; the section Lepelletier unanimously passed a resolution, "That the powers of every constituted authority ceased in presence of the assembled people; and a provisional government, under the name of a Central Committee, was established under the auspices of its leaders." A majority of the sections adopted this resolution, which

*Convention
turns to
the army.*

*The de-
partments
accept the
Constitu-
tion.*

was immediately annulled by the Convention, and their decree was, in its turn, reversed by the assemblies of the electors. The contest now became open between the sections and the Legislature; the former separated the Constitution from the decrees ordaining the re-election of two-thirds of the old assembly; they accepted the former, and rejected the latter.

*Meeting of
the elec-
tors at the
Théâtre
Français.*

*Perplexing
questions.*

On the 3d of October (11th Vendémiaire) it was resolved by the sections that the electors chosen by the people should be assembled at the Théâtre Français, under the protection of the National Guard; and on the 3d they were conducted there by an armed force of chasseurs and grenadiers. The dangers of an insurrection against a government, having at its command the military force of France, was apparent; but the enthusiasm of the moment overbalanced all other considerations. On the one side it was urged, "Are we about to consecrate, by our example, that odious principle of insurrections which so many bloody days have rendered odious? Our enemies alone are skilled in revolt; the art of exciting them is unknown to us. The multitude is indifferent to our cause; deprived of their aid, how can we face the government? If they join our ranks, how shall we restrain their sanguinary excesses? Should we prove victorious, what dynasty shall we establish? what chiefs can we present to the armies? Is there not too much reason to fear that success would only revive divisions, now happily forgotten, and give our enemies the means of

profiting by our discord?" But to this it was replied, "Honor forbids us to recede; duty calls upon us to restore freedom to our country, his throne to our monarch. We may now, by seizing the decisive moment, accomplish that which former patriots sought in vain to achieve. The 9th Thermidor only destroyed a tyrant; now tyranny itself is to be overthrown. If our names are now obscure, they will no longer remain so; we shall acquire a glory of which even the Brave Vendéans shall be envious. Let us dare: that is the watchword in revolutions; may it for once be employed on the side of order and freedom. The Convention will never forgive our outrages; the revolutionary tyranny, curbed for more than a year by our exertions, will rise up with renewed vigor for our destruction, if we do not anticipate its vengeance by delivering ourselves." Moved by these considerations, the sections unanimously resolved upon resistance.

The National Guard amounted to above thirty thousand men, but it was totally destitute of artillery; the sections having, in the belief that they were no further required, delivered up the pieces with which they had been furnished in 1789, upon the final disarming of the insurgent faubourgs. Their want was now severely felt, as the Convention had fifty pieces at their command, whose terrible efficacy had been abundantly proved on the 10th of August; and the cannoneers who were to

*Resistance
resolved
upon.*

serve them were the same who had broken the lines of Prince Cobourg. The National Guard hoped, by a rapid advance, to capture this formidable train of artillery, and then the victory was secure.

*Measures
of the
Convention.*

The leaders of the Convention, on their side, were not idle. In the evening of the 3d of October (11th Vendémiaire) a decree was passed, ordering the immediate dissolution of the electoral bodies in Paris, and embodying into a regiment fifteen hundred of the Jacobins, many of whom were liberated from the prisons for that especial purpose. These measures brought matters to a crisis between the sections and the government. This decree was openly resisted, and the National Guard having assembled in force to protect the electors at the Théâtre Français, the Convention ordered the military to dispossess them. General Menou was appointed commander of the armed force, and he advanced with the troops of the line to surround the Convent des Filles de St. Thomas, the centre of the insurrection, where the section Lepelletier was assembled.

*Menou's
weakness.*

Menou, however, had not the decision requisite for success in civil contests. Instead of attacking the insurgents, he entered into a negotiation with them, and retired in the evening without having effected anything. His failure gave all the advantages of a victory to the sections, and the National Guard mustered in greater strength than ever, and resolved to attack the Convention at its place of assembly on the following day. In

formed of this failure, and the dangerous fermentation which it had produced at Paris, the Convention, at eleven at night, dismissed General Menou, and gave the command of the armed force, with unlimited powers, to General Barras. He immediately demanded the assistance, as second in command, of a young officer of artillery who had distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon and the war in the Maritime Alps, Napoleon Bonaparte.

*Napoleon's
opportu-
nities.*

This young officer was immediately introduced to the committee. His manner was timid and embarrassed; the career of public life was as yet new, but his clear and distinct opinions, the energy and force of his language, already indicated the powers of his mind. By his advice, the powerful train of artillery in the plains of Sablons, consisting of fifty pieces, was immediately brought by a lieutenant, afterward well known in military annals, named Murat, to the capital, and disposed in such a position as to command all the avenues to the Convention. Early on the following morning, the neighborhood of the Tuileries resembled a great intrenched camp. The line of defence extended from the Pont Neuf along the quays of the river to the Pont Louis XV.; the Place de Carrousel and the Louvre were filled with cannon, and the entrances of all the streets which open into the Rue St. Honoré were strongly guarded. In this position the commanders of the Convention awaited the attack of the insurgents. Napoleon was indefatigable in his exer-

*He com-
mands the
avenues
with
artillery.*

tions to inspire the troops with confidence: he visited every post, inspected every battery, and spoke to the men with that decision and confidence which is so often the prelude to victory.

The action was soon commenced; above thirty thousand men, under Generals Danican and Duhoux, surrounded the little army of six thousand, who, with this powerful artillery, defended the seat of the Legislature. The firing began in the Rue St. Honoré at half-past four; the grenadiers placed on the Church of St. Roche opened a fire of musketry on the cannoneers of the Convention, who replied by a discharge of grapeshot, which swept destruction through the serried ranks of the National Guard which occupied the Rue St. Honoré. Though the insurgents fought with the most determined bravery, and the fire from the Church of St. Roche was well sustained, nothing could resist the murderous grapeshot of the regular soldiers. Many of the cannoneers fell at their guns, but the fire of their pieces was not diminished. In a few minutes the Rue St. Honoré was deserted, and the flying columns carried confusion into the ranks of the reserve, who were formed near the Church of the Filles de St. Thomas. General Danican galloped off at the first discharge, and never appeared again during the day. Meanwhile, the Pont Neuf was carried by the insurgents, and a new column, ten thousand strong, advanced along the opposite quay to the Tuilleries to attack the Pont Royal; Napoleon allowed them to ad-

*Attack of
the Legislature.*

*The insur-
gents carry
Pont Neuf.*

vance within twenty yards of his batteries, and then opened his fire; the insurgents stood three discharges without flinching; but not having resolution enough to rush upon the cannon, they were ultimately driven back in disorder, and by seven o'clock the victory of the Convention was complete at all points. At nine, the troops of the line carried the posts of the National Guard in the Palais Royal, and on the following morning the section Lepelletier was disarmed, and the insurgents everywhere submitted.

Such was the result of the last insurrection of the people in the French Revolution; all the subsequent changes were effected by the Government or the armies without their interference. The insurgents were not the rabble or the assassins who had so long stained its history with blood; they were the flower of the citizens of Paris; comprising all that the Revolution had left that was generous, or elevated, or noble, in the capital. They were overthrown, not by the superior numbers or courage of their adversaries, but by the terrible effect of their artillery, by the power of military discipline, and the genius of that youthful conqueror before whom all the armies of Europe were destined to fall. The moral strength of the nation was all on their side; but in revolutions, it is seldom that moral strength proves ultimately victorious; and the examples of Cæsar and Cromwell are not required to show that the natural termination of civil strife is military despotism.

*Total
defeat
of the in-
surgeants.*

*Establish-
ment of
military
despotism.*

*Generosity
of the Con-
vention.*

*Napoleon's
clemency.*

The Convention made a generous use of their victory. The Girondists, who exercised an almost unlimited sway over the members, put in practice those maxims of clemency which they had so often recommended to others; the officers who had gained the victory felt a strong repugnance to their laurels being stained with the blood of their fellow-citizens. Few executions followed this decisive victory: M. Lafont, one of the military chiefs of the revolt, obstinately resisting the means of evasion which were suggested to him by the court, was alone condemned, and died with a firmness worthy of the cause for which he suffered. Most of the accused persons were allowed time to escape, and sentence of outlawry merely recorded against them; many returned shortly after to Paris, and resumed their place in public affairs. The clemency of Napoleon was early conspicuous: his counsels, after the victory, were all on the side of mercy, and his intercession saved General Menou from a military commission.

In the formation of the councils of the Five Hundred and of the Ancients, the Convention made no attempt to constrain the public wishes. The third of the Legislature who had been newly elected were almost all on the side of the insurgents, and even contained several Royalists; and a proposal was, in consequence, made by Tallien that the election of that third should be annulled, and another appeal made to the people. Thibaudeau, with equal firmness and eloquence, resisted the proposal,

which was rejected by the Assembly. They merely took the precaution, to prevent a return to royalty, to name for the directors five persons who had voted for the death of the King—Lareveillere, Rewbell, Letourneur, Barras, and Carnot. Having thus settled the new government, they published a general amnesty, changed the name of the Place de la Revolution into that of Place de la Concorde, and declared their sittings terminated. The last days of an assembly stained with so much blood were gilded by an act of clemency of which Thibaudeau justly said the annals of kings furnished few examples.

*General
amnesty.*

[In 1796, the United Irishmen induce the Directoire to send an expedition to Ireland to establish a Republic. A storm ruins the expedition. Hoche pacifies Brittany and La Vendée. France invades Germany and retreats. Bonaparte successfully invades Italy. Spain enters into an alliance with the Directoire and declares war against Great Britain. The allies make a treaty to partition Portugal, which calls upon England for aid. Britain sends troops and prevents the invasion. Great Britain captures St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Ceylon. In 1797, Jervis defeats the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent. A mutiny breaks out in the British fleets at Spithead, the Nore and the Texel, that is suppressed. Duncan defeats the Dutch off Camperdown.]

*Hoche
pacifies
La Vendée.*

THE DECLINE AND FALL OF VENICE

(A.D. 1797)

J. C. L. DE SISMONDI

WE have now to speak only of the decline and fall of the Republic of Venice, the state in Italy whose existence was of longest duration. As this Republic was the most powerful, the most wealthy, and the most wisely administered of all the Italian States, it appeared, even after the year 1530, when all Italy fell under the yoke of Charles V., to have preserved some vigor and independence. But the signoria of Venice did not share in the illusion which it created abroad: it felt the nation's weakness and danger, and knew too well that the vital principle was gone.

*Greatness
of Venice.*

*Venice's
work in the
Sixteenth
Century.*

The whole of the Sixteenth Century was employed by the Venetians in repairing the disasters of the League of Cambray. They had to rebuild all the walls of their city; to recover their reduced population; to re-establish their manufactures and agriculture, and to liquidate the enormous debt with which they were loaded; besides

being always menaced by the Turks, against whom they had to support two disastrous wars; one from 1537 to 1540, which cost them their islands in the Archipelago, and their last fortresses in the Morea; the other from 1570 to 1573, which deprived them of the Isle of Cyprus. They appeared in some degree sacred to the western people, who regarded them as their defenders against the infidels; they were, moreover, united by an identity of interests to the Roman Empire,—like them, menaced by the Mussulmans: they, consequently, drew closer their alliance with the House of Austria, and under that pretext withdrew themselves from every other participation in the general affairs of Europe.

*Policy
of the
Venetian
Republic.*

But in the beginning of the Seventeenth Century the Mussulman empire no longer inspired so much terror. The yoke of Spain continued to grow more insupportable to Italy; while the development of the Protestant party in Europe showed some prospect of throwing it off. The policy of the Venetian Republic was, in fact, constantly to throw off the yoke of the House of Austria. But knowing its own weakness, and justly suspicious of allies who would abandon after compromising them, the Venetians contented themselves with giving succor to those whom they considered the defenders of European liberty, without openly making themselves a party in their leagues.

Venice was the first to acknowledge Henry IV., rejected by the Catholic powers, and to negotiate his

reconciliation with the Pope. In 1617, it made alliance with the Dutch. During the Thirty Years' War, it gave succor to the Protestants of Germany, to Bethlehem Gabor, and to Ragotski, in Hungary. It supported the Duke of Savoy against the King of Spain, and the Protestant Grisons against the Catholics of that canton.

*Alliances
and aids.*

At this period, when the Republic was come almost to open hostility with the court of Spain, Philip III. was represented in Italy by three powerful noblemen, ambitious, intriguing, and faithless—Don Pedro de Toledo, Governor of Milan; the Duke d'Ossuna, Viceroy of Naples; and the Marquis de Bedmar, Ambassador at Venice. In 1618, a project was formed between these three lords to destroy a Republic which stood in the way of their ambition, and which had always thwarted the enterprises of Spain. Some French adventurers, who had signalized themselves in the armies and fleets of the Republic, of whom the most illustrious were the corsair Jaques Pierre and Jaffier, dissatisfied with the rewards which they had obtained, offered their services to the Marquis de Bedmar. The Marquis encouraged them to enlist in their service the assassins, bravos, and robbers who, under the Spanish rule, always formed a part of the household of men of quality. It was agreed that, at a given signal, they should massacre the Doge, Senators, and nobles; that the city should afterward be abandoned to their pillage; and that a general fire should veil their crimes. On the other side, it appears that Jaques Pierre

*Conspiracy
against the
Republic.*

gave early notice of this plot to the Senate; that he carried it on by its order; that the Senate made use of it to hide its secret intelligence with the Duke d'Ossuna, with whom a project was entered into of nearly the same nature with that which had been proposed in the preceding century by Morone to Pescara. It was intended, with the aid of the Senate, to re-establish the independence of all Italy, by driving the Spaniards out of Lombardy, and giving Ossuna the crown of Naples. Fresh disclosures of Antoine Jaffier apparently discovered to the Council of Ten that the conspirators preferred the pillage of Venice to the doubtful chances of a revolt at Naples; and that the information which they had given of their plot was destined only to deceive the vigilance of the State inquisitors. The Republic, however, had embarked itself in intrigues which could not bear the light. On a certain morning, the inhabitants of Venice saw with horror the bodies of Jaques Pierre, Regnault, Boulant, and several others, hanging in the square of St. Mark. One hundred and sixty others were, it was affirmed, drowned in the Grand Canal; among them was Jaffier. No motive was assigned for these executions; no explanation was given to the public; no recrimination was addressed to the court of Spain. The Council of Ten desired, above all, the silence of terror; and the romantic history of this conspiracy, published by St. Réal, in 1674, and the tragedy of "Venice Preserved," by

*Jaques
Pierre and
Antoine
Jaffier.*

*The silence
of terror.*

Otway, in 1682, were the only public documents of this catastrophe for a long time.

The Venetians were afterward forced by the attacks of the Turks to make advances to the House of Austria, the enemy of their enemies. On the 23d of June, 1645, the Sultan Ibrahim unexpectedly attacked the Isle of Candia. The war which thus began was the longest and most ruinous that the Republic had yet sustained against the Ottoman Empire: it lasted twenty-five years. The Venetians displayed obstinate valor in defence of Candia. Courageous adventurers arrived from every part of the west to fight under their banner, as in a holy war. Their fleet twice destroyed that of the Mussulmans; but the forces of the Republic were too disproportioned to those of the Turkish Empire. Candia was forced to surrender on the 6th of September, 1669; and the Senate of that colony, the reflected image of the Republic, returned into the Grand Council of Venice, which had given it birth: peace followed this capitulation.

A second war between the Venetians and the Porte was, before the end of the century, crowned with more success. The Republic engaged in it, in 1682, in concert with the Emperor Leopold and John Sobieski, King of Poland. It conquered the Morea, Egina, Santa Maura, and several fortresses in Dalmatia, which were secured to it by the treaty of Carlowitz, signed on the 26th of January, 1699; but the Turks could not suffer so feeble an enemy to take from them one of their finest provinces.

*Wars with
the Turks.*

*Loss of
Candia.*

*The Repub-
lic conquers
the Morea.*

They might soon visibly convince themselves that the Venetians were no longer in a state to make a last effort to protect their conquest: the supreme power was concentrated in an oligarchy becoming daily more distracted. Half the nobility admitted to the Grand Council were reduced to the most extreme poverty. They lived on the bounty of the great, to whom they sold their suffrages. The families from among whom alone was selected the Council of Ten made every other tremble and obey. They regarded the State as a prey to be divided among themselves. Justice was venal; the finances dilapidated; the fortifications falling into ruin; the effective force of the army did not amount to one-half of what appeared on the roll; everything was to the Venetian noble an object of embezzlement and robbery. The oppression of the distant provinces was so great that the eastern Christian subjects of the Republic regretted the dominion of the Ottomans. The Sultan, Achmet III., informed of this universal disorganization, sent his army,

Triumph of the Turks. on the 20th of June, 1714, into the Morea; and in a month conquered that peninsula, covered with fortresses, of which not one made any resistance. On the 27th of June, 1718, the Republic abandoned, under the peace of Passarowitz, all its claims on the Morea. From that period it had no further war with the Turks.

The Republic abstained, with the same timidity, from taking any part in the war of the succession, either in Spain or Austria, in the quadruple alliance, or in that of

the election of Poland, which disturbed Italy during the first half of the Eighteenth Century. It could not even make its neutrality respected. Its territory, always open to every belligerent power, was often the theatre of their most obstinate warfare. Venice, with 3,000,000 of subjects, 14,000 troops of the line (of which one-half was composed of excellent Sclavonian soldiers), twelve vessels of war, and the means of arming 50,000 men, was incapable of making herself respected, or of protecting her subjects, either by sea or land. Her debt, even in the bosom of peace, was always increasing; her manufactures always in decay; her territory was infested with robbers; every city was divided into factions, which the Senate encouraged, in order to weaken its subjects. A suspicious and cruel government, which maintained itself only by the vigilance of spies, which had promoted immorality to enervate the people, which made the most profound secrecy its only safeguard,—which did not tolerate even a question on public affairs,—which deprived the accused of every protection before the tribunals,—which acknowledged no other limit to the right of punishing by the dagger, by poison, or by the axe of the executioner, than that of the terror of its rulers;—a government such as this became execrated by its subjects. It stained with the most odious tyranny the very name of republic.

The French Revolution appeared to the Venetian aristocracy an enemy destined to destroy it: of all the gov-

*Weakness
and decay.*

*The French
Revolution.*

ernments which divided Europe, the Venetian was the most opposite in principle to that of the French; nevertheless, the Senate refused to enter into the coalition against France, in 1792. Any display of force would have augmented its expenses, and diminished the spoils of provinces which the patricians divided among themselves. The same parsimony, the same sacrifice of the public to private interests, hindered Venice, when the victories of Bonaparte opened Lombardy to him, in April, 1796, from augmenting her army or provisioning her fortresses, in order to protect her territory from the two belligerent powers. The government, adopting a vacillating policy between the two parties, and awaiting events, laid aside its arms: this soon brought war into the States of the Republic. The Austrians, always the first to violate neutral ground, traversed them in every direction: Beaulieu occupied Peschiera and Verona; Wurmser threw himself into Bassano, and passed through Vicenza and Padua: Alvinzi and the Archduke Charles occupied Friuli and Palma Nova, up to the eastern limits of the Republic. Napoleon successively drove the Austrians from each of these provinces; but, as the French occupied them, the spirit of reform in the tribunals and the laws, the spirit of publicity and equality, an impatience of every yoke,—the spirit, in short, of the French,—manifested itself, and the Republic was at last made to understand how much it was detested

*Austria
overruns
Venetia.*

*General
hatred
of the
Republic.*

by all those who had the least elevation of soul or cultivation of mind.

Others, it is true, of the lowest class (day-laborers in towns, and peasants in the country), completely under the influence of priests, comprehending only what exists, fearing all change, and still deeply excited by the name of St. Mark, regarded France and everything French with horror. The Senate, relying on this party, whose fanaticism it excited, and hearing that Napoleon had passed the Piave on his march to Germany, on the 11th of March, 1797, gave orders to arrest at Bergamo fourteen of the principal inhabitants, who had declared themselves the most earnest in favor of the new doctrines. The patriots, warned in time, arrested the proveditor himself, raised the standard of revolt, and proclaimed the liberty of Bergamo: a few days afterward, a similar revolution broke out at Brescia. Bonaparte had just defeated the Archduke Charles at the Tagliamento, and was marching on Vienna. An Austrian column, commanded by Laudon, had meanwhile penetrated by the Tyrol into Italy, which he inundated with proclamations, announcing the defeat and destruction of the French army, and inviting the Italians to take arms to crush its fugitive remains. The Senate, feeling that its position became daily more critical, believed the moment come for throwing off the mask and joining the Austrians. Emili, the proveditor of Verona, after having conferred with Laudon, ordered the tocsin to be

*Invasion
and revolt.*

Venice attacks the French.

Austria refuses aid.

The Treaty of Campo Formio.

rung, on the 17th of April, throughout the whole province; and, joining 30,000 insurgents to 3,000 soldiers, whom he commanded, everywhere attacked the French, massacred all those within his reach, and suffered the infuriated people to murder 400 sick in the hospitals. The next day preliminaries of peace between Austria and the French Republic were signed at Leoben; and, on the 3d of May, 1797, Bonaparte, informed of the insurrection which had been organized in the rear of his army, and of the massacre of his sick, declared war against Venice from Palma Nova. The oligarchy, in consternation, implored the court of Vienna, which had drawn it into this imprudent attack, to include Venice in the suspension of arms and the negotiations for peace; but Austria refused all assistance: she had her own views on her ally, and Venice fell. The French general, Baraguai d'Hilliers, entered the city on the 16th of May, and planted unopposed the tricolor banner on St. Mark. The negotiations for peace, however, continued. Austria, beginning to recover from her panic, disputed the cessions demanded, and asked compensation out of the States of her ally. Hostilities were on the point of recommencing; but France did not yet find herself strong enough to liberate all Italy. On the 17th of October, 1797, Napoleon signed the treaty of Campo Formio, by which he secured the liberty of one-half of the Venetian territory up to the Adige, which was united to the Cisalpine Republic. The Ionian Isles were, at the same time, united to France.

Austria, on her side, took possession of Venice and the remainder of the Venetian States. The loss of liberty sustained by that part of the Republic was, however, of no long duration: at the expiration of eighteen months the war was renewed; and, after the French had made themselves masters of Vienna, they obliged Austria to restore Venice and all her territory to the kingdom of Italy, under the treaty of Presburg, signed on the 26th of December, 1805.

*Venice
restored
to Italy
under the
Treaty of
Presburg.*

[In 1798, a rebellion breaks out in Ireland, which is assisted by a French invasion: it is suppressed. Napoleon goes to Egypt to create an Eastern Empire, and attacks England in India by the aid of Tippoo Sahib. He captures Malta on the way, and wins the battle of the Pyramids. Turkey declares war on France in consequence. The Pope is deprived of his temporal power by the French and a Roman Republic is proclaimed. France wars on Switzerland and sets up the Helvetic Republic.]

*Tippoo
Sahib.*

THE BATTLE OF THE NILE

(A.D. 1798)

ROBERT SOUTHEY

WHY Bonaparte, having effected his landing, should not have suffered the fleet to return, has never yet been explained. Thus much is certain, that it was detained by his command; though, with his accustomed falsehood, he accused Admiral Brueys, after that officer's death, of having lingered on the coast, contrary to orders. The French fleet arrived at Alexandria on the 1st of July; and Brueys, not being able to enter the port, which time and neglect had ruined, moored his ships in Aboukir Bay, in a strong and compact line of battle; the headmost vessel, according to his own account, being as close as possible to a shoal on the northwest, and the rest of the fleet forming a kind of curve along the line of deep water, so as not to be turned by any means in the southwest. By Bonaparte's desire, he had offered a reward of 10,000 livres to any pilot of the country who would carry the squadron in; but none could be found who would ven-

*Arrival of
the French
fleet at
Alexandria.*

Strength
of the
position.

ture to take charge of a single vessel drawing more than twenty feet. He had, therefore, made the best of his situation, and chosen the strongest position which he could possibly take in an open road. The commissary of the fleet said, they were moored in such a manner as to bid defiance to a force more than double their own. This presumption could not then be thought unreasonable. Admiral Barrington, when moored in a similar manner off St. Lucia, in the year 1778, beat off the Comte d'Estaing in three several attacks, though his force was inferior by almost one-third to that which assailed it. Here, the advantage of numbers in ships, guns, and men was in favor of the French. They had thirteen ships of the line and four frigates, carrying 1,196 guns and 11,230 men. The English had the same number of ships of the line, and one fifty-gun ship, carrying 1,012 guns and 8,068 men. The English ships were all seventy-fours; the French had three eighty-gun ships, and one three-decker of 120.

Nelson's
conferences.

During the whole pursuit, it had been Nelson's practice, whenever circumstances would permit, to have his captains on board the *Vanguard*, and explain to them his own ideas of the different and best modes of attack, and such plans as he proposed to execute, on falling in with the enemy, whatever their situation might be. There is no possible position, it is said, which he did not take into calculation. His officers were thus fully acquainted with his principles of tactics: and such was his

confidence in their abilities, that the only thing determined upon, in case they should find the French at anchor, was for the ships to form as most convenient for their mutual support, and to anchor by the stern. "First gain the victory," he said, "and then make the best use of it you can." The moment he perceived the position of the French, that intuitive genius with which Nelson was endowed displayed itself; and it instantly struck him, that where there was room for an enemy's ship to swing, there was room for one of ours to anchor. The plan which he intended to pursue, therefore, was to keep entirely on the outer side of the French line, and station his ships, as far as he was able, one on the outer bow, and another on the outer quarter, of each of the enemy's. This plan of doubling on the enemy's ships was projected by Lord Hood, when he designed to attack the French fleet at their anchorage in Gourjean road. Lord Hood found it impossible to make the attempt; but the thought was not lost upon Nelson, who acknowledged himself, on this occasion, indebted for it to his old and excellent commander. Captain Berry, when he comprehended the scope of the design, exclaimed with transport, "If we succeed, what will the world say!"—"There is no *if* in the case," replied the admiral: "that we shall succeed, is certain: who may live to tell the story, is a very different question."

His tactics.

As the squadron advanced, they were assailed by a shower of shot and shells from the batteries on the

The enemy opens fire.

island, and the enemy opened a steady fire from the starboard of their whole line, within half-gunshot distance, full into the bows of our van ships. It was received in silence; the men on board every ship were employed aloft in furling sails, and below in tending the braces, and making ready for anchoring. A miserable sight for the French; who, with all their skill, and all their courage, and all their advantages of numbers and situation, were upon that element on which, when the hour of trial comes, a Frenchman has no hope. Admiral Brueys was a brave and able man; yet the indelible character of his country broke out in one of his letters, wherein he delivered it as his private opinion that the English had missed him, because, not being superior in force, they did not think it prudent to try their strength with him. —The moment was now come in which he was to be undeceived.

The decoy brig.

A French brig was instructed to decoy the English, by manœuvring so as to tempt them toward a shoal lying off the island of Bequieres; but Nelson either knew the danger, or suspected some deceit; and the lure was unsuccessful. Captain Foley led the way in the *Goliath*, out-sailing the *Zealous*, which for some minutes disputed this post of honor with him. He had long conceived that if the enemy were moored in line of battle in with the land, the best plan of attack would be to lead between them and the shore, because the French guns on that side were not likely to be manned, nor even ready for

action. Intending, therefore, to fix himself on the inner bow of the *Guerrier*, he kept as near the edge of the bank as the depth of water would admit; but his anchor hung, and having opened his fore, he drifted to the second ship, the *Conquerant*, before it was clear; then anchored by the stern, inside of her, and in ten minutes shot away her mast. Hood, in the *Zealous*, perceiving this, took the station which the *Goliath* intended to have occupied, and totally disabled the *Guerrier* in twelve minutes. The third ship, which doubled the enemy's van, was the *Orion*, Sir J. Saumarez; she passed to windward of the *Zealous*, and opened her larboard guns as long as they bore on the *Guerrier*; then passing inside the *Goliath*, sunk a frigate which annoyed her, hauled round toward the French line, and, anchoring inside, between the fifth and sixth ships from the *Guerrier*, took her station on the larboard bow of the *Franklin*, and the quarter of the *Peuple Souverain*, receiving and returning the fire of both. The sun was now nearly down. The *Audacious*, Captain Gould, pouring a heavy fire into the *Guerrier* and the *Conquerant*, fixed herself on the larboard bow of the latter; and when that ship struck, passed on to the *Peuple Souverain*. The *Theseus*, Captain Miller, followed, brought down the *Guerrier*'s remaining main and mizzen masts, then anchored inside of the *Spartiate*, the third in the French line.

While these advanced ships doubled the French line, the *Vanguard* was the first that anchored on the outer

Success of
the Goliath
and Zealous.

Nelson
opens fire.

Strength of
the Orient.

side of the enemy, within half pistol-shot of their third ship, the *Spartiate*. Nelson had six colors flying in different parts of his rigging, lest they should be shot away;—that they should be struck, no British admiral considers as a possibility. He veered half a cable, and instantly opened a tremendous fire; under cover of which the other four ships of his division, the *Minotaur*, *Bellerophon*, *Defence*, and *Majestic*, sailed on ahead of the admiral. In a few minutes, every man stationed at the first six guns in the fore part of the *Vanguard*'s deck was killed or wounded—these guns were three times cleared. Captain Louis, in the *Minotaur*, anchored next ahead, and took off the fire of the *Aquilon*, the fourth in the enemy's line. The *Bellerophon*, Captain Darby, passed ahead and dropped her stern anchor on the starboard bow of the *Orient*, seventh in line—Brueys' own ship, of one hundred and twenty guns—whose difference in force was in proportion of more than seven to three, and whose weight of ball, from the lower deck alone, exceeded that from the whole broadside of the *Bellerophon*. Captain Peyton, in the *Defence*, took his station ahead of the *Minotaur*, and engaged the *Franklin*, the sixth in the line; by which judicious movement the British line remained unbroken. The *Majestic*, Captain Westcott, got entangled with the main rigging of one of the French ships astern of the *Orient*, and suffered dreadfully from that three-decker's fire; but she swung clear, and closely engaging the *Heureux*, the ninth ship on the starboard

bow, received also the fire of the *Tonnant*, which was the eighth in the line. The other four ships of the British squadron, having been detached previous to the discovery of the French, were at a considerable distance when the action began. It commenced at half after six; about seven, night closed, and there was no other light than that from the fire of the contending fleets.

Trowbridge, in the *Culloden*, then foremost of the remaining ships, was two leagues astern. He came on sounding, as the others had done: as he advanced, the increasing darkness increased the difficulty of the navigation; and suddenly, after having found eleven fathoms of water, before the lead could be hove again, he was fast aground: nor could all his own exertions, joined to those of the *Leander* and the *Mutine* brig, which came to his assistance, get him off in time to bear a part in the action. His ship, however, served as a beacon to the *Alexander* and *Swiftsure*, which would else, from the course which they were holding, have gone considerably further on the reef, and must inevitably have been lost. These ships entered the bay, and took their stations, in the darkness, in a manner long spoken of with admiration by all who remembered it. Captain Hallowell, in the *Swiftsure*, as he was bearing down, fell in with what seemed to be a strange sail: Nelson had directed his ships to hoist four lights horizontally at the mizzen-peak, as soon as it became dark; and this vessel had no such distinction. Hallowell, however, with great judgment, or-

*The Cul-
oden fast
aground.*

Plight of
the Bel-
lerophon.

dered his men not to fire: if she was an enemy, he said, she was in too disabled a state to escape; but, from her sails being loose, and the way in which her head was, it was probable she might be an English ship. It was the *Bellerophon*, overpowered by the huge *Orient*: her lights had gone overboard, nearly 200 of her crew were killed or wounded, all her masts and cables had been shot away; and she was drifting out of the line, toward the lee side of the bay. Her station, at this important time, was occupied by the *Swiftsure*, which opened a steady fire on the quarter of the *Franklin*, and the bows of the French admiral. At the same instant, Captain Ball, with the *Alexander*, passed under his stern, and anchored within side on his larboard quarter, raking him, and keeping up a severe fire of musketry upon his decks. The last ship which arrived to complete the destruction of the enemy was the *Leander*. Captain Thompson, finding that nothing could be done that night to get off the *Culloden*, advanced with the intention of anchoring athwart-hawse of the *Orient*. The *Franklin* was so near her ahead, that there was not room for him to pass clear of the two; he, therefore, took his station athwart-hawse of the latter, in such a position as to rake both.

The two first ships of the French line had been dismasted within a quarter of an hour after the commencement of the action; and the others had in that time

suffered so severely, that victory was already certain. The third, fourth and fifth were taken possession of at half-past eight.

*Victory
early
assured.*

Meantime, Nelson received a severe wound on the head from a piece of langridge shot. When the surgeon came, in due time, to examine his wound (for it was in vain to entreat him to let it be examined sooner), the most anxious silence prevailed; and the joy of the wounded men, and of the whole crew, when they heard that the hurt was merely superficial, gave Nelson deeper pleasure than the unexpected assurance that his life was in no danger. The surgeon requested, and as far as he could, ordered him to remain quiet: but Nelson could not rest. He called for his secretary, Mr. Campbell, to write the despatches. Campbell had himself been wounded; and was so affected at the blind and suffering state of the admiral, that he was unable to write. The chaplain was then sent for; but, before he came, Nelson, with his characteristic eagerness, took the pen, and contrived to trace a few words, marking his devout sense of the success which had already been obtained. He was now left alone; when suddenly a cry was heard on the deck that the *Orient* was on fire. In the confusion, he found his way up, unassisted and unnoticed; and, to the astonishment of every one, appeared on the quarter-deck, where he immediately gave orders that boats should be sent to the relief of the enemy.

*Nelson
wounded.*

*The Orient
on fire.*

It was soon after nine that the fire on board the *Orient*

*Death of
Admiral
Brueys.*

*The Orient
blows up.*

broke out. Brueys was dead: he had received three wounds, yet would not leave his post: a fourth cut him almost in two. He desired not to be carried below, but to be left to die upon deck. The flames soon mastered his ship. Her sides had just been painted; and the oil-jars and paint-buckets were lying on the poop. By the prodigious light of this conflagration, the situation of the two fleets could now be perceived, the colors of both being clearly distinguishable. About ten o'clock the ship blew up, with a shock which was felt to the very bottom of every vessel. Many of her officers and men jumped overboard, some clinging to the spars and pieces of wreck, with which the sea was strewn, others swimming to escape from the destruction which they momentarily dreaded. Some were picked up by our boats; and some, even in the heat and fury of the action, were dragged into the lower ports of the nearest British vessel by the British sailors. The greater part of her crew, however, stood the danger till the last, and continued to fire from the lower deck. This tremendous explosion was followed by a silence not less awful: the firing immediately ceased on both sides; and the first sound which broke the silence was the dash of her shattered masts and yards falling into the water from the vast height to which they had been exploded. It is upon record, that a battle between two armies was once broken off by an earthquake: such an event would be felt like a miracle; but no incident in war, produced by human means, has ever

equalled the sublimity of this co-instantaneous pause, and all its circumstances.

About seventy of the *Orient*'s crew were saved by the English boats. Among the many hundreds who perished were the commodore, Casa-Bianca, and his son, a brave boy, only ten years old. They were seen floating on a shattered mast when the ship blew up. She had money on board (the plunder of Malta) to the amount of 600,000. sterling. The masses of burning wreck, which were scattered by the explosion, excited, for some moments, apprehensions in the English which they had never felt from any other danger. Two large pieces fell into the main and fore tops of the *Swiftsure*, without injuring any person. A port fire also fell into the main-royal of the *Alexander*; the fire which it occasioned was speedily extinguished. Captain Ball had provided, as far as human foresight could provide, against any such danger. All the shrouds and sails of his ship, not absolutely necessary for its immediate management, were thoroughly wetted, and so rolled up, that they were as hard and as little inflammable as so many solid cylinders.

The firing recommenced with the ships to leeward of the centre, and continued until about three. At day-break, the *Guillaume Tell*, and the *Généreux*, the two rear ships of the enemy, were the only French ships of the line which had their colors flying; they cut their cables in the forenoon, not having been engaged, and stood out to sea, and two frigates with them. The *Zeal-*

The English save some of the crew.

The action continues.

The great victory.

The losses.

ous pursued; but as there was no other ship in a condition to support Captain Hood, he was recalled. It was generally believed by the officers, that if Nelson had not been wounded, not one of these ships could have escaped: the four certainly could not, if the *Culloden* had got into action; and if the frigates belonging to the squadron had been present, not one of the enemy's fleet would have left Aboukir Bay. These four vessels, however, were all that escaped; and the victory was the most complete and glorious in the annals of naval history. "Victory," said Nelson, "is not a name strong enough for such a scene;" he called it a conquest. Of thirteen sail of the line, nine were taken, and two burnt: of the four frigates, one was sunk, another, the *Artemise*, was burnt in a villainous manner by her captain, M. Estandlet, who, having fired a broadside at the *Theseus*, struck his colors, then set fire to the ship, and escaped with most of his crew to shore. The British loss, in killed and wounded, amounted to 895. Westcott was the only captain who fell: 3,105 of the French, including the wounded, were sent on shore by cartel, and 5,225 perished.

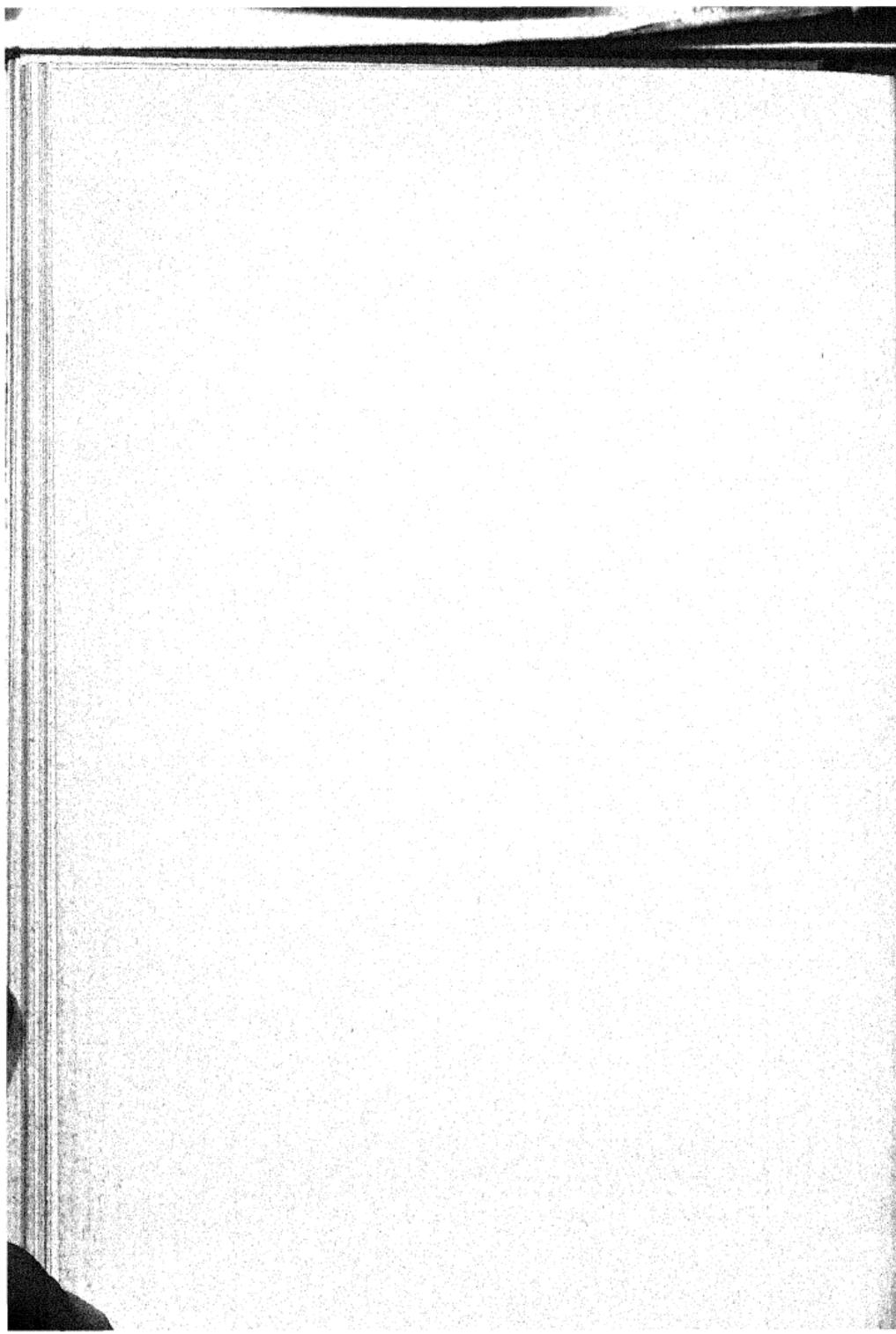
[In 1799, Great Britain forms a coalition with Austria, Russia, Portugal, Naples, and Turkey, and sends an unsuccessful expedition to Holland. The French suffer many reverses and lose Italy. In Naples, the Society of the Carbonari is formed. Bonaparte is baffled at

A.D. 1798

THE BATTLE OF THE NILE

Acre, and hearing of what is happening in France, hurries home. He overthrows the Directoire and becomes First Consul. The Rosetta Stone, which furnishes the key to the hieroglyphics, is discovered by the French and captured by the English. Humboldt departs on his five years' voyage of discovery in America.]

*Bonaparte
becomes
First
Consul.*



THE SIEGE OF ACRE

(A.D. 1799)

J. R. MILLER

BONAPARTE, being separated from France, by the total defeat of the French fleet at Aboukir, exerted himself to secure the affection of the Egyptians by flattering their religious prejudices; by recalling their ancient greatness, and asserting that he wished to restore them to their pristine grandeur; by professions of regard for his ally, the grand seignior; and by pretending that the invasion of Egypt, and the expulsion of the beys, were measures which merited or had obtained his assent. These arts, however, failed to produce the desired effect, and his arms alone could ensure the obedience which he courted, or avert the danger which he dreaded. An insurrection at Cairo had nearly proved fatal to his cause; and some hundreds of the French, including General Dupuis, their commander, were killed before it could be suppressed: a much larger number of the insurgents, of course, perished, and not a few afterward fell by the hands of the *Affairs of Egypt.*

*Hostility of
the beys.*

executioner; for Buonaparte, wherever he went, treated all who opposed him as traitors and rebels. Various skirmishes and some sharp actions took place between the invaders and the Mamelukes, under the command of the beys, in different parts of the country, particularly in Upper Egypt, in all of which the superior discipline and tactics of the French baffled the rude courage and desultory attacks of their opponents. It could not, however, be supposed that the Porte would leave them in quiet possession of a portion of her territory, or that England would make no effort to wrest it from their hands: Buonaparte was aware that if an army was sent from Europe to attack him on one side, while a Turkish force from Asia assailed him on the other, he might not be able to extricate himself from the difficulties with which he would be surrounded, and he therefore resolved to attack the Turks in the first instance, in the hope of subduing them before they could receive assistance from other quarters. He accordingly made preparations for an expedition against Acre, and sent his train of artillery, destined for the siege, by sea. The army, in four divisions, under the command of Kleber, Bon, Regnier, and Lannes, proceeded to El-Arisch, where an action was fought, in which the French were successful. They then moved forward to Jaffa, anciently called Joppa, a seaport town on the coast of Palestine, which was carried by assault, with great loss, after a vigorous defence. Numbers of the garrison were put to the sword;

*Capture
of Jaffa.*

but the greater part having taken refuge in the mosques and implored mercy from the French, their lives were spared.

Being incumbered with nearly four thousand prisoners, from the care and maintenance of which, it is said, Buonaparte found it necessary to relieve himself, he ordered them to be marched to a rising ground near Jaffa, where volleys of musketry and grapeshot were played upon them by a division of French infantry; and such of the Turks as were not killed by the shot were put to death by the bayonet. The accumulation of unburied bodies occasioned the visitation of the plague, by which a great number of the French soldiers were soon infected, the hospitals crowded, and the medical staff embarrassed. In this crisis Buonaparte found an apothecary who consented to administer poison to the sick. A sufficient quantity of opium was, accordingly, mixed with pleasant food, of which the unsuspecting victims freely partook; and in a few hours five hundred and eighty soldiers, who had suffered so much for the tyrants of their country, thus miserably perished.

*Massacre
and pesti-
lence.*

Buonaparte then marched at the head of his troops for Acre, which at this moment contained within its walls two men, who, with the romantic heroism of the days of chivalry, united all the knowledge appertaining to the modern art of war—Sir W. Sidney Smith, a British naval officer of distinguished enterprise, and Colonel Phillippeaux, an emigrant officer of engineers. After res-

*Advance
on Acre.*

*Sir Sidney
Smith and
Phillip-
peaux.*

cuing his friend, Sir Sidney, from bondage in the Temple, and restoring him to liberty at the hazard of his life, Phillippeaux accompanied him in a small squadron to which he had been appointed, and, after cruising with him in the Levant, had embarked for Syria to afford assistance to the Pacha. On the 30th of March, 1799, the trenches were opened, about one hundred and fifty fathoms from the wall; and soon after the enemy advanced to storm the fortress. It was soon discovered, however, that a ditch of fifteen feet was to be passed, while the counterscarp was almost untouched; and the breach, which was not large, had been effected upward of six feet above the level of the works. Notwithstanding these obstacles, a body of grenadiers descended into the ditch, and attempted to scale the wall; but nothing could be achieved. The garrison was at first seized with terror, and many of the Turkish soldiers ran toward the harbor; but no sooner did they discover that the opening in the wall was several feet above the rubbish, than they returned to the charge, and showered down stones, grenades, and combustibles upon the assailants, who were obliged to retire, after losing two adjutants-general, and a great number of men. This event afforded so much encouragement to the troops of the Pacha, that they made a sally, in which they killed several of the besiegers. In the interim, the English squadron discovered, in the neighborhood of Mount Carmel, a corvette and nine sail of gunboats, laden with artillery and ammunition, in-

tended to assist in the reduction of Acre, seven of which, containing all the battering train, were captured; and this fortunate incident contributed greatly to save the city. At this period of the siege Ghezzar Oglou, the Pacha, dispersed his firmauns among the Naplouzians, as well as into the towns in the Said, requesting the true believers to rise and overwhelm the infidels. The British squadron, which had been driven from the unsheltered anchorage of St. Jean d'Acre by the equinoctial gales, had no sooner resumed its station than another sortie was determined upon, for the purpose of destroying a mine made by the enemy below the tower. In this operation, the British marines and seamen were to force their way into the mine, while the Turkish troops attacked the enemy's trenches on the right and left. The sally took place just before daylight; and Lieutenant Wright, who commanded the seamen-pioneers, notwithstanding he received two shots in his right arm as he advanced, entered the mine with the pikemen, and proceeded to the bottom of it, where he verified its direction, and destroyed all that could be destroyed in its present state.

The Samaritan Arabs having made incursions even into the French camp, Buonaparte proceeded against them in person; and he found Kleber's division, consisting of two thousand Frenchmen, who had previously been detached as a corp of observation, fighting at the foot of Mount Tabor, and nearly encircled by a large body

*Capture of
a French
squadron.*

*A success-
ful sortie.*

of horse, which he obliged to retire behind the mount, where a great number were drowned in the Jordan.

Buonaparte hastened to return to the camp before Acre, and the invaders at length completed the mine destined to destroy the tower, which had so long withstood all their efforts; but, although one of the angles was carried away, the breach remained as difficult of access as before. About this period the garrison sustained the loss of Phillippeaux, who died of a fever, contracted by want of rest, and extraordinary exertion. On the first of May, after many hours' heavy cannonade from thirty pieces of artillery, brought by the enemy from Jaffa, a fourth attempt was made; but the *Tigre*, moored on one side, and the *Theseus* on the other, flanked the town walls; and the gunboats, launches, and other rowboats, continued to flank the enemy's trenches to their great annoyance, till at length they were obliged to desist from the attack. Notwithstanding their various repulses, the enemy continued to batter in the breach with progressive success, and made nine several attempts to storm, but had as often been beaten back. The garrison had long been in expectation of a reinforcement, under Hassan Bey, who had originally received orders to advance against Alexandria, but was afterward directed to proceed to the relief of Acre: it was not, however, till the fifty-first day of the siege that this fleet made its appearance. The approach of so much additional strength was the signal to Buonaparte for a vigorous as-

*Death of
Phillip-
peaux.*

sault, in hopes to get possession of the town before the reinforcement could disembark; and on the night of the 8th of May he succeeded in making a lodgment in the second story of the northeast tower. Daylight on the ninth showed the French standard unfurled on the outer angle; and at this most critical point of the contest Hassan Bey's troops were still in their boats, not having advanced more than halfway toward the shore. Sir Sidney Smith, whose energy and talents gave effect to every operation, landed the crews of the gunboats on the mole, and marched them to the breach, each man being armed with a pike. A heap of ruins between the besieged and besiegers served as a breastwork for both; the muzzles of the muskets touched, and the spear-heads of the standards locked. Ghezzar Pacha, hearing that the English were on the breach, quitted his station, where, according to the ancient Turkish custom, he was sitting to reward such as should bring him the heads of the enemy, and distributing cartridges with his own hands. This energetic old man, coming behind his British allies, pulled them down with violence, saying, "If any harm happen to our English friends, all will be lost." The whole of the reinforcements being now landed, the Pacha, with some difficulty, so far subdued his jealousy as to admit the Chifflick regiment, of one thousand men, into the garden of his seraglio, from whence a vigorous sally was made with an intention to obtain possession of the enemy's third parallel, or nearest trench; but the Turks,

*Gallant
defence.*

*Bravery of
Ghezzar
Pacha.*

*Turkish
tactics.*

unequal to such a movement, were driven back into the town with loss; and, although the sortie did not succeed, it had the effect of obliging the enemy to expose themselves above their parapets, and the flanking fire of the garrison, aided by a few hand-grenades, dislodged them from the tower. Determined to persevere, the enemy effected a new breach by an incessant fire directed to the southward, every shot knocking down whole sheets of a wall, much less solid than that of the tower, on which they had expended so much time and ammunition. At the suggestion of the Pacha the breach was not this time defended, but a certain number of the enemy was let in, and then closed upon, according to the Turkish mode of war, when a sabre in one hand and a dagger in the other, proving more than a match for the bayonets, the survivors hastened to sound a retreat. Thus ended a contest, continued with little intermission for five-and-twenty hours; and in which nature, sinking under the exertion, demanded repose.

*Buonaparte
is dis-
couraged.*

Chagrin began to be visible in the conduct of Buonaparte, who, for the first time in his life, beheld himself foiled, and that, too, by a town scarcely defensible according to the rules of art; while the surrounding hills were crowded with spectators, awaiting the result of the contest, to declare for the victor. The plague also found its way into the French camp, and seven hundred men had already fallen martyrs to that terrible malady. In this deplorable situation, the French commander-in-chief

determined to make a last effort, and General Kleber's division was recalled from the fords of Jordan, to take its turn in the daily efforts to mount the breach at Acre, in which every other division in succession had failed, with the loss of their bravest men, and about three-fourths of their officers. Before this reinforcement could commence its operations, another sally was made on the night of the 10th of May by the Turks, who succeeded in making themselves masters of the enemy's third parallel, and advanced to the second trench; but, after a conflict of three hours, they were driven back, leaving everything *in statu quo*, except the loss of men, which was considerable on both sides.

Determined, at length, to raise the siege, Buonaparte first ordered his sick and wounded to be sent away, and, to keep the besieged in check, increased the fire of his cannon and mortars. Ghezzar, remarking these dispositions for retreat, made frequent sallies, which were repulsed with vigor. The aspect of the field of carnage was horrible: the ditches and the reverses of the parapets were filled with the slain; the air was infected, and the proposition for a suspension of arms to bury the dead remained unanswered. After sixty days' continuance, Buonaparte, in a proclamation, announced to his army the raising of the siege, and resolved to return to Egypt, to defend its approach in the season of landing against the force assembled at Rhodes. On the 20th of May, the very day on which the army began its march, General

*He deter-
mines to
raise the
siege.*

Le Grange repulsed two sallies, and forced the Turks back into the town. General Lannes' division led the march; Regnier's evacuated the trenches; Kleber formed a strong rearguard; while Junot covered the left flank. Buonaparte threw into the sea the artillery which he could not carry back through the desert; and his battering train, amounting to twenty-three pieces, fell into the hands of the English. After blowing up the fortifications of Jaffa and Gaza, and inflicting a terrible vengeance on those who had defended their country against the invaders, the French passed over the desert, and were received by the inhabitants of Cairo, ignorant of recent events, as victors.

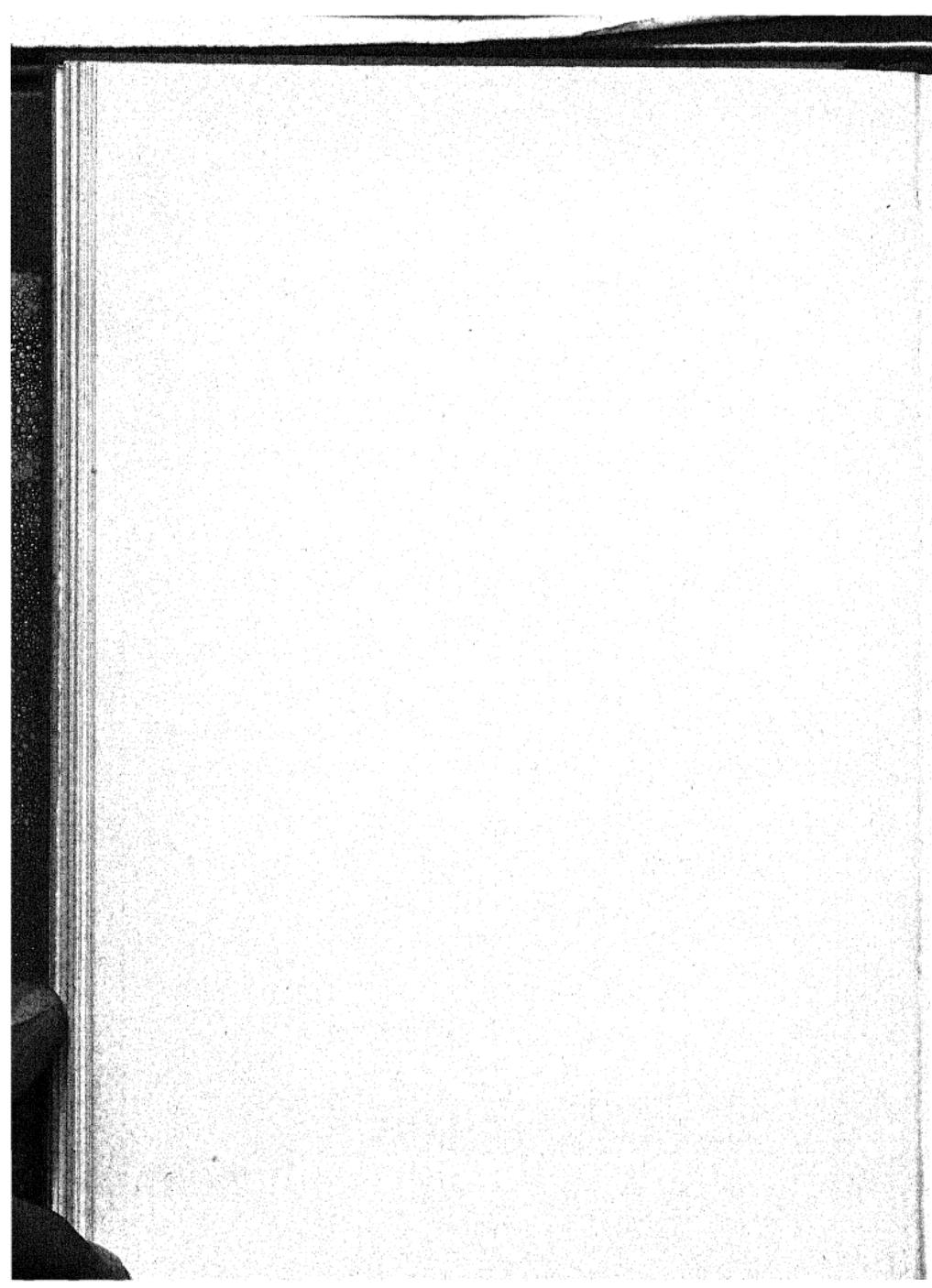
Buonaparte, ruminating on his repulse at Acre, where he had, for the first time, experienced defeat and disgrace, resolved to repair to a country more congenial with his disposition and pursuits. This resolution to abandon his post, and to desert those gallant men who had braved every danger at his command, was only equalled by the mode in which it was accomplished. Leaving a sealed packet addressed to General Kleber, nominating that officer to the command of the army in Egypt during his absence, he embarked suddenly, on the 24th of August, with Generals Berthier, Lannes, Murat, and Andreossi, accompanied by Monge, Beutholet, and Arnaud, members of the Egyptian Institute, and attended by several Mamelukes, the future guards of his person. He communicated his design to none but those whom he

*He aban-
dons his
artillery.*

*Buonaparte
returns to
France.*

THE SIEGE OF ACRE

intended to accompany him; and he left the army in a deplorable state. He was a deserter, too, in every sense of the word; for he quitted his command without orders, and even without permission. That singular good fortune, however, to which he was so often indebted, attended him on this occasion; for, after repeatedly escaping the vigilance of the English cruisers, he landed, first at Ajaccio, and then at Frejus; and on his arrival at Paris, on the 16th of October, he was courted by all parties, and invited by the Directory to a grand festival.



THE FIRST CONSUL

(A.D. 1799)

WILLIAM FRANCIS COLLIER

DURING his absence of seventeen months (May 9, 1798—October 8, 1799), the Directory had fallen into disgrace with the French people. Austria, with the aid of Suwarrow and his Russians, had recovered Italy. French soldiers had been defeated on the Rhine. And the money matters of the country were sadly behind.

*Weakness
of the
Directory.*

All eyes turned to Bonaparte, who resolved on a change. Abbé Sieyès one of the Directors, had sketched out a new Constitution, and it remained for Bonaparte and his grenadiers to overthrow the old state of things and lay the foundation of the new. The two Councils were removed to St. Cloud, lest they might be overawed by the mob of Paris. Bonaparte appeared one day among them, passed from the Hall of the Ancients to that of the Five Hundred, and when in the latter, the cry of "No Dictator" rose from the angry members, who crowded noisily round him, a file of soldiers rushed

*Bonaparte
over-
throws it.*

in to save him. His brother, Lucien, who was president, left the chair, and proclaimed the Assembly dissolved. Murat then led through the hall a band of grenadiers, with drums beating and bayonets at the charge, clearing out the members, some of whom tumbled with undignified haste out of the windows. Then the government of France was placed in the hands of three Consuls, appointed for ten years. Bonaparte was First Consul, and held all real power, his colleagues, Sieyès and Ducos, being mere assistants and advisers. These two inferior Consuls soon gave place to Cambacères and Lebrun. The law-making was done according to the new plan, by the Consuls, a Senate of 80, a Legislative Assembly of 300, and a Tribune of 100 members.

The First Consul.

The First Consul then began to act the king. He wrote a letter to George III. of England proposing peace, but the offer was rejected in a strongly worded reply from Grenville. Already he had detached Russia from the coalition of nations against whom he had to contend. At home he bent all his energies to the raising of troops, and a quarter of a million conscripts were soon marshalled beneath his banner. He gagged the press. He put down the civil war in La Vendée. He filled France with detectives, whose vigilance covered the land with an unseen network of espionage. And, well aware of the national taste for show, he gathered into the ball-rooms of the Tuileries crowds of handsome soldiers gay with scarlet and gold, and lovely women, whose toilettes

rivalled in taste and splendor the fashions of the later Bourbon dames.

Resolved again to humiliate Austria on the plains of Lombardy, he signalized the last spring of the century by his famous passage of the Alps. With 36,000 men, and 40 cannon, he climbed the Great St. Bernard, his soldiers dragging the dismounted guns up the icy slopes in the hollow trunks of trees. Like an avalanche he poured his troops upon the green plain below. On the 2d of June he entered Milan in triumph, and met the wings of his army, which had crossed by the Simplon and the St. Gothard. A fortnight later, he met old Melas, the Austrian leader, on the plain of Marengo near Alessandria. The French army, outnumbered three to one, was driven back and all but beaten, until the gallant Desaix flung himself with the last reserve upon the Austrian column and broke it to pieces. The leader of the charge, to whom not long before Bonaparte had presented a sword engraven with the proud words, "*Conquête de la Haute Egypte*," fell dead from his horse, shot through the breast in the moment of victory. The Austrians were soon driven beyond the Adige and the Brenta. In the same year (November 3) Moreau, who had been sent to the Rhine, defeated the Austrians at Hohenlinden. These successes were followed by the Treaty of Luneville, concluded between Austria and France. The leading terms of this peace were similar to those of Campo Formio.

*Passage of
the Alps.*

*Battle of
Marengo.*

*Return of
the émigrés.*

*Peace of
Amiens.*

Ere this Christianity had been re-established in France; and the people gladly welcomed the old familiar chime of the church-bells, ringing in the seventh day's rest. Now a general amnesty was granted to all emigrants, who would take an oath of allegiance to the new government before a certain date, and about 100,000 exiles turned their weary feet toward home. Wherever it was possible, these returning wanderers got back their old estates. The "Legion of Honor" was instituted for both soldiers and civilians. England was the power most dreaded by Bonaparte; and he well knew that her navy was her highest glory and greatest strength. He worked in the northern courts until he united Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and afterward Prussia, in a formidable league against England and her ships. But Nelson, sailing into the harbor of Copenhagen in the face of 2,000 cannon, crushed the naval power of Denmark in four hours (April 2, 1801). And, a few days earlier, the Emperor Paul of Russia was strangled by conspirators. So the giant league melted into nothing. At the same time British bayonets, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, scattered the last relics of the army which Bonaparte had abandoned in Egypt. These disappointments and reverses made the First Consul wish for peace. At Amiens this short-lived peace was signed. France retained Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine, and got back her West Indian islands. Holland received once more the Cape of Good Hope. England kept Ceylon. But Napoleon

never meant peace; all he intended was a short breathing time, that he might take an important step at home, and gird himself for a more brilliant career of victory abroad.

All France was wild with delight at the dazzling glory of the First Consul's victories, and the kindness of his rule. When the enthusiasm had reached the boiling point, a decree of the Senate appeared, proclaiming Bonaparte First Consul for life. The votes of the people all over the land ratified the change.

One work he did at this time, which half redeems his memory, in France at least, from the red cloud that blurs its glory. He set a number of his best lawyers, with Cambacères at their head, to arrange the laws of his adopted land. Six distinct codes, published at various times, are loosely grouped together as the Code Napoléon. Of these, the Civil Code is undoubtedly the best; and France still enjoys the valued legacy. In the schools instruction took, as might be expected, an almost exclusively military turn. Latin, mathematics, and drill were the great aims of the teacher's work. The First Consul laughed metaphysics and kindred studies to utter scorn. No better proof to him of time well spent at school than the ability to fence with skill, to point a gun, or sketch out the map of a position.

*The Code
Napoléon.*

Then, with studied insults, he drove England again into war. In May, 1803, the British Government seized all French vessels in British harbors,—an act which

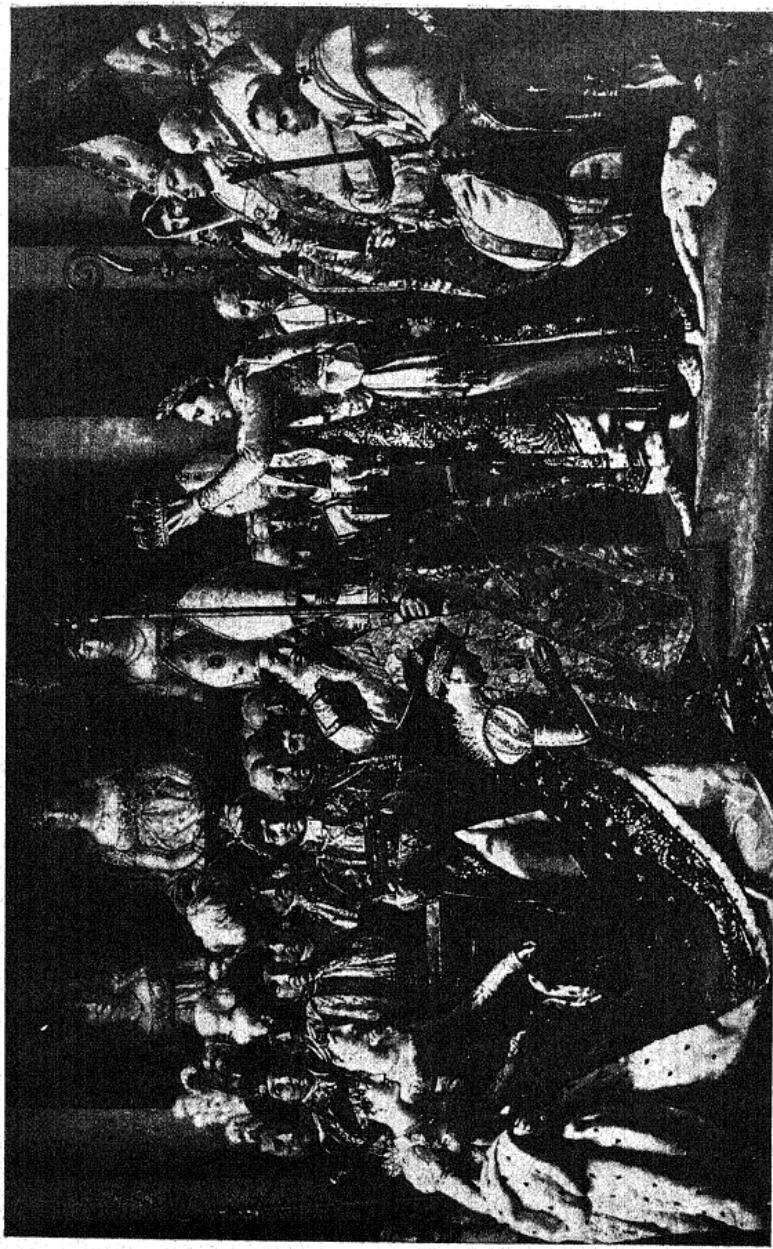
*Renewed
war with
England.*

*Plans for
invading
England.*

Napoleon retaliated by throwing into prison all Englishmen found travelling in France. French soldiers then rapidly overran Hanover, and prepared to invade Naples. At the same time, the First Consul began to muster his legions and fleets for the invasion of England. This was his grandest design; but he never was able to cross the narrow strait. With 160,000 bluejackets standing by her guns at sea, and double that number of redcoats lining her southern shores, Britain stood on her guard. The whole scheme vanished into nothing. Eighteen hundred years before, a mad Emperor of Rome had set his legions to pick shells on that same low beach, where the "Army of England" lay encamped, and had then celebrated his conquest of the white-cliffed island by a splendid triumph at Rome. Bonaparte could not stoop to folly like this. But he turned away in fear; and, leaving his flat-bottomed boats at Boulogne, he marched his soldiers toward the Danube.

*Plot to
assassinate
Napoleon.*

But before he won there his greatest victory, he had perpetrated his greatest crime and reached his highest eminence. A plot against his life was detected by his sleepless police. Two generals, Pichegru and Moreau, were involved in the affair. While Pichegru lay in prison, he was found strangled; Moreau went into exile. But an innocent man fell a victim to a vague suspicion of the same kind. His true crime was only that he was a Bourbon. Seized in Baden, the young Duke d'Enghien was hurried to the castle of Vincennes. There, after a



NAPOLÉON CROWNING JOSEPHINE EMPRESS OF THE FRENCH (Page 89)

FROM THE PAINTING BY DAVID

mock trial, he was shot by torchlight in the darkness of a wild March morning, and buried as he lay, in his bloody and bullet-torn clothes (March 21). Within two months the First Consul was declared, by the Senate and the Tribunate, Emperor of the French. The votes of the people being taken, only about 4,000 names were registered against his elevation. He was too impatient to wait for the collection of the votes. On the 18th of May he assumed the imperial name at St. Cloud, and on the following day he created eighteen of his best generals Marshals of the Empire. The Pope, Pius VII., was invited to Paris to crown the newly elected Emperor. At Notre Dame, on the 2d of December, the ceremony of coronation was performed. The Pope blessed the crown, and Napoleon, taking it from the altar, placed it on his own head. He then crowned Josephine as Empress.

*Execution
of D'En-
ghien.*

*The
Empire.*

The republics of Italy were then all merged into a kingdom, of which Bonaparte was invited to become king. It pleased him well. Indeed, he must have foreseen and worked toward this ancient end of French ambition. In the cathedral of Milan (May 26, 1805), he assumed the iron crown of Lombardy, saying, as he placed the rusty rim upon his temples, "God has given it to me; woe to him who shall attempt to lay hands on it!" He then named Eugene Beauharnais, his stepson, as his viceroy in Italy.

*Bonaparte
King of
Italy.*

[In 1800, Kleber, whom Napoleon has left in command in Egypt, is assassinated. In 1801, the Northern Confederation of Sweden, Denmark, and Russia is formed. Great Britain regards it as a declaration of war, seizes the Danish and Swedish West India islands and bombards Copenhagen. The Czar Paul is assassinated, and his son is conciliatory toward Great Britain. Portugal declares war against Spain, and after defeat gives up half Guiana to France and shuts its ports against Great Britain. Toussaint l'Ouverture is made life president of Hayti; proclaims independence and expels the French. Abercromby defeats the French outside Alexandria; they agree to evacuate, and Egypt is restored to Turkey.]

*Toussaint
expels the
French.*

THE INVENTION OF THE STEAMBOAT

(A.D. 1801-1807)

JAMES RENWICK

FULTON remained for two years in the neighborhood of Exeter, where his intelligence and ability obtained for him many useful and interesting acquaintances. Among these the most important were the Duke of Bridgewater and Earl Stanhope. The first of these noblemen fills a large space in the history of the internal improvements of Great Britain; and he was, in fact, the father of the vast system of inland navigation which has spread its ramifications over every accessible part of that island. With Earl Stanhope, Fulton's intercourse was still more intimate, and probably of an earlier date. This nobleman was endowed by nature with high mechanical talent. Had he been impelled by the stimulus of necessity, there is little doubt that he might have become distinguished as a successful inventor. As it was, he exhibited practical skill as a canal engineer; but here his reputation faded before the prior claims of *Fulton's friendship with English inventors.* *Earl Stanhope's friendship.*

the Duke of Bridgewater; while his inventions remained incomplete, and few of them have been carried into effect. Among other projects, this peer entertained the hope of being able to apply the steam engine to navigation, by the aid of a peculiar apparatus modelled after the foot of an aquatic fowl. On communicating this plan to Fulton, the latter saw reason to doubt its feasibility; and, in consequence, addressed a letter to his Lordship, in which the very views were suggested that were afterward successful upon the Hudson. This letter was written in 1793, immediately before the removal of Fulton from Devonshire to Birmingham.

Fulton's residence in Birmingham brought him into communication with Watt, who had just succeeded in giving to his steam engine that perfect form which fits it for universal application as a prime mover. That Fulton became intimately acquainted, not only with Watt himself, but with the structure of his engine, we learn from two facts in his subsequent life; for we find him entering into a confidential correspondence with that great improver of the application of steam, and actually superintending the construction of an engine, in a place where no aid was to be obtained.

Until Watt had completed the structure of the double-acting condensing engine, the application of steam to any but the single object of pumping water, had been almost impracticable. It was not enough, in order to render it applicable to general purposes, that the con-

Fulton becomes intimate with James Watt.

Watt's improvements.

densation of the water should take place in a separate vessel, and that steam should itself be used, instead of atmospheric pressure, as the moving power; but it was also necessary that the steam should act as well during the ascent as during the descent of the piston.

Ere the method of paddle-wheels could be successfully introduced, it was in addition necessary that a ready and convenient mode of changing the motion of the piston into one continuous and rotary should be discovered. All these improvements upon the original form of the steam engine are due to Watt, and he did not complete their perfect combination before the year 1786.

No sooner had that illustrious inventor completed his double-acting engine, than he saw, at a glance, the vast field of its application. Navigation and locomotion were not omitted; but, living in an inland town, and in a country possessing no rivers of importance, his views were limited to canals alone. In this direction he saw an immediate objection to the use of any apparatus of which so powerful an agent as his engine should be the mover; for it was clear that the injury which would be done to the banks of the canal would prevent the possibility of its introduction. Watt, therefore, after having conceived the idea of a steamboat, laid it aside, as unlikely to be of any practical value.

*Local
limitations.*

The idea of applying steam to navigation was not confined to Europe. Numerous Americans entertained hopes of attaining the same object; but, before 1786,

Franklin's judgment.

with the same want of any reasonable hopes of success. Their fruitless projects were, however, rebuked by Franklin; who, reasoning upon the capabilities of the engine in its original form, did not hesitate to declare all their schemes impracticable; and the correctness of his judgment is at present unquestionable.

Among those who, before the completion of Watt's invention, attempted the construction of steamboats,¹

¹ In the first volume of Navarrete's *Colección de los Viages y Descubrimientos*, etc., published at Madrid, in 1825, there is a remarkable statement, in which the invention of the steamboat is ascribed to a Spaniard three hundred years ago. The particulars were derived from the public archives at Simáncas. The following is a translation of a part of this statement:

"Blasco de Garay, a sea-captain, exhibited to the Emperor and King, Charles the Fifth, in the year 1543, an engine by which ships and vessels of the larger size could be propelled, even in a calm, without the aid of oars or sails. Notwithstanding the opposition which this project encountered, the Emperor resolved that an experiment should be made, as in fact it was, with success, in the harbor of Barcelona on the 17th of June, 1543.

"Garay never publicly exposed the construction of his engine; but it was observed at the time of the experiment that it consisted of a large caldron or vessel of boiling water, and a movable wheel attached to each side of the ship. The experiment was made on a ship of two hundred tons, arrived from Colibre to discharge a cargo of wheat at Barcelona; it was called the *Trinity*, and the captain's name was Peter de Scarza.

"By order of Charles the Fifth, and the Prince, Philip the Second, his son, there were present at the time, Henry de Toledo, the governor Peter Cardona, the treasurer Ravago, the vice-chancellor Francis Gralla, and many other persons of rank, both Castilians and Catalonians; and, among others, several sea-captains witnessed the operation, some in the vessel, and others on the shore. The Emperor and Prince, and others with them, applauded the engine, and especially the expertness with which the ship could be tacked. The treasurer, Ravago, an enemy to the project, said it would move two leagues in three hours. It was very complicated and expensive, and exposed to the constant danger of bursting the boiler. The other commissioners affirmed that the vessel could be tacked twice as quick as a galley served by the common method, and that, at its slowest rate, it would move a league in an hour. The

must be named, with praise, Fitch and Rumsey. They, unlike those whose names have been cited, were well aware of the real difficulties which they were to overcome; and both were the authors of plans which, if the engine had been incapable of further improvement, might have had a partial and limited success. Fitch's trial was made in 1783, and Rumsey's in 1787. The latter is subsequent to Watt's double-acting engine; but, as the project consisted merely in pumping in water, to be afterward forced out at the stern, the single-acting engine was probably employed. Evans, whose engine might have answered the purpose, was employed in the daily business of a millwright; and, although he might, at any time, have driven these competitors from the field, took no steps to apply his dormant invention.

Early inventors of steamboats.

Fitch, who had watched the graceful and rapid way of the Indian pirogue, saw in the oscillating motion of the old pumping-engine the means of impelling paddles, in a manner similar to that given them by the human arm. This idea is extremely ingenious, and was applied in a simple and beautiful manner; but the engine was

Fitch and Rumsey.

exhibition finished, Garay took from the ship his engine, and having deposited the woodwork in the arsenal of Barcelona, kept the rest himself.

"Notwithstanding the difficulties and opposition thrown in the way by Ravago, the invention was approved; and if the expedition in which Charles the Fifth was then engaged had not failed, it would undoubtedly have been favored by him. As it was, he raised Garay to a higher station, gave him a sum of money (200,000 maravedies) as a present, ordered all the expenses of the experiment to be paid out of the general treasury, and conferred upon him other rewards."

yet too feeble and cumbrous to yield an adequate force; and, when it received its great improvement from Watt, a more efficient mode of propulsion became practicable, and must have superseded Fitch's paddles, had they even come into general use.

In the latter stages of Fitch's investigations, he became aware of the value of Watt's double-acting engine, and refers to it as a valuable addition to his means of success; but it does not appear to have occurred to him that, with this improved power, methods of far greater efficiency than those to which he had been limited before this invention was completed had now become practicable.

Miller and Symington.

Symington's successful model.

When the properties of Watt's double-acting engine became known to the public, an immediate attempt was made to apply it to navigation. This was done by Miller, of Dalswinton, who employed Symington as his engineer. Miller seems to have been the real author; for, as early as 1787, he published his belief that boats might be propelled by employing a steam engine to turn paddle-wheels. It was not until 1791 that Symington completed a model for him, of a size sufficient for a satisfactory experiment. If we may credit the evidence, which has since been adduced, the experiment was as successful as the first attempts of Fulton; but it did not give to the inventor that degree of confidence which was necessary to induce him to embark his fortune in the enterprise. The experiment of Miller was, therefore,

ranked by the public among unsuccessful enterprises, and was rather calculated to deter from imitation than to encourage others to pursue the same path.

Symington, at a subsequent period, resumed the plans of Miller, and, by the aid of funds furnished by Lord Dundas, put a boat in motion on the Forth and Clyde canal in 1801.

The experiments of Fitch and Rumsey in the United States, although generally considered as unsuccessful, did not deter others from similar attempts. The great rivers and arms of the sea, which intersect the Atlantic coast, and, still more, the innumerable navigable arms of the Father of Waters, appeared to call upon the ingenious machinist to contrive means for their more convenient navigation.

The improvement of the engine by Watt was now familiarly known; and it was evident that it possessed sufficient powers for the purpose. The only difficulty which existed was in the mode of applying it. The first person who entered into the inquiry was John Stevens, of Hoboken, who commenced his researches in 1791. In these he was steadily engaged for nine years, when he became the associate of Chancellor Livingston and Nicholas Roosevelt. A grant of exclusive privileges on the waters of the State of New York was made to this association without any difficulty, it being believed that the scheme was little short of madness.

Further attempts at steam navigation in the United States.

John Stevens of Hoboken.

Livingston, on his arrival in France, found Fulton

*Livingston
offers to
provide
funds.*

domiciliated with Joel Barlow. The conformity in their pursuits led to intimacy, and Fulton speedily communicated to Livingston the scheme which he had laid before Earl Stanhope, in 1793. Livingston was so well pleased with it, that he at once offered to provide the funds necessary for an experiment, and to enter into a contract for Fulton's aid in introducing the method into the United States, provided the experiment was successful.

Fulton had, in his early discussion with Lord Stanhope, repudiated the idea of an apparatus acting on the principle of the foot of an aquatic bird, and had proposed paddle-wheels in its stead. On resuming his inquiries, after his arrangements with Livingston, it occurred to him to compose wheels with a set of paddles revolving upon an endless chain, extending from the stem to the stern of the boat. It is probable that the apparent want of success which had attended the experiments of Symington led him to doubt the correctness of his own original views.

That such doubt should be entirely removed, he had recourse to a series of experiments upon a small scale. These were performed at Plombières, a French watering-place, where he spent the summer of 1802. In these experiments, the superiority of the paddle-wheel over every other method of propulsion that had yet been proposed was fully established. His original impressions being thus confirmed, he proceeded late in the year 1803 to construct a working model of his intended boat,

*Experi-
ments at
Plombières
in 1802.*

which model was deposited with a commission of French savants. He at the same time commenced building a vessel sixty-six feet in length and eight feet in width. To this an engine was adapted; and the experiment made with it was so satisfactory as to leave little doubt of final success.

Measures were therefore immediately taken to construct a steamboat on a large scale in the United States. For this purpose, as the workshops of neither France nor America could at that time furnish an engine of good quality, it became necessary to resort to England. Fulton had already experienced the difficulty of being compelled to employ artists unacquainted with the subject. It is, indeed, more than probable that, had he not, during his residence in Birmingham, made himself familiar not only with the general features but with the most minute details of the engine of Watt, the experiment on the Seine could not have been made. In this experiment, and in the previous investigations, it became obvious that the engine of Watt required important modifications in order to adapt it to navigation. These modifications had been planned by Fulton; but it now became important that they should be more fully tested. An engine was therefore ordered from Boulton & Watt, without any specification of the object to which it was to be applied; and its form was directed to be varied from their usual models, in conformity to sketches furnished by Fulton.

*Modifi-
cations
necessary.*

*Renewal
of exclusive
privileges.*

The order for an engine, intended to propel a vessel of large size, was transmitted to Boulton & Watt in 1803. Much about the same time, Chancellor Livingston, having full confidence in the success of the enterprise, caused an application to be made to the Legislature of New York, for an exclusive privilege of navigating the waters of that State by steam, that granted on a former occasion having expired.

This was granted with little opposition. Indeed, those who might have been inclined to object, saw so much of the impracticable, and even of the ridiculous, in the project, that they conceived the application unworthy of serious debate. The condition attached to the grant was, that a vessel should be propelled by steam, at the rate of four miles an hour, within a prescribed space of time.

*Fulton
visits
England.*

Before the engine ordered from Boulton & Watt was completed, Fulton visited England. Although the visit was ineffectual, so far as his project of torpedoes was concerned, it gave him the opportunity of visiting Birmingham, and directing, in person, the construction of the engine ordered from Boulton & Watt. It could only have been at this time, if ever, that he saw the boat of Symington; but a view of it could have produced no effect upon his own plans, which had been matured in France, and carried out, so far as the engine was concerned, as to admit of no alteration.

The engine was at last completed and reached New York in 1806. Fulton, who returned to his native coun-

try about the same period, immediately undertook the construction of a boat in which to place it. In the ordering of this engine, and in planning the boat, Fulton exhibited plainly how far his scientific researches and practical experiments had placed him before all his competitors. He had evidently ascertained, what each successive year's experience proves more fully, the great advantages possessed by large steamboats over those of smaller size; and thus, while all previous attempts were made in small vessels, he alone resolved to make his final experiment in one of great dimensions.² That a vessel intended to be propelled by steam ought to have very different proportions and lines of a character wholly distinct from those of vessels intended to be navigated by sails was evident to him. No other theory, however, of the resistance of fluids was admitted at the time than that of Bossut, and there were no published experiments except those of the British Society of Arts. Judged in reference to these, the model chosen by Fulton was faultless, although it will not stand the test of an examination founded upon a better theory and more accurate experiments.

The vessel was finished and fitted with her machinery in August, 1807. An experimental excursion was forthwith made, at which a number of gentlemen of science and intelligence were present. Many of these were either sceptical or absolute unbelievers. But a few minutes

*Returns to
the United
States.*

*First steam-
boat built
and tried.*

² This was written in 1838.

served to convert the whole party, and satisfy the most obstinate doubters, that the long-desired object was at last accomplished. Only a few weeks before, the cost of constructing and finishing the vessel threatening to exceed the funds with which he had been provided by Livingston; he had attempted to obtain a supply by the sale of one-third of the exclusive right granted by the State of New York. No person was found possessed of faith requisite to induce him to embark in the project. Those who had rejected this opportunity of investment were now the witnesses of the scheme which they had considered as an inadequate security for the desired funds.

*First
voyage to
Albany.*

Within a few days from the time of the first experiment with the steamboat, a voyage was undertaken in it to Albany. This city, situated at the natural head of the navigation of the Hudson, is distant, by the line of the channel of the river, rather less than one hundred and fifty miles from New York. By the old post road, the distance is one hundred and sixty miles, at which that by water is usually estimated. Although the greater part of the channel of the Hudson is both deep and wide, yet, for about fourteen miles below Albany, this character is not preserved, and the stream, confined within comparatively small limits, is obstructed by bars of sand, or spreads itself over shallows. In a few remarkable instances, the sloops which then exclusively navigated the Hudson had effected a passage in about sixteen hours,

A.D. 1801-1807 INVENTION OF THE STEAMBOAT

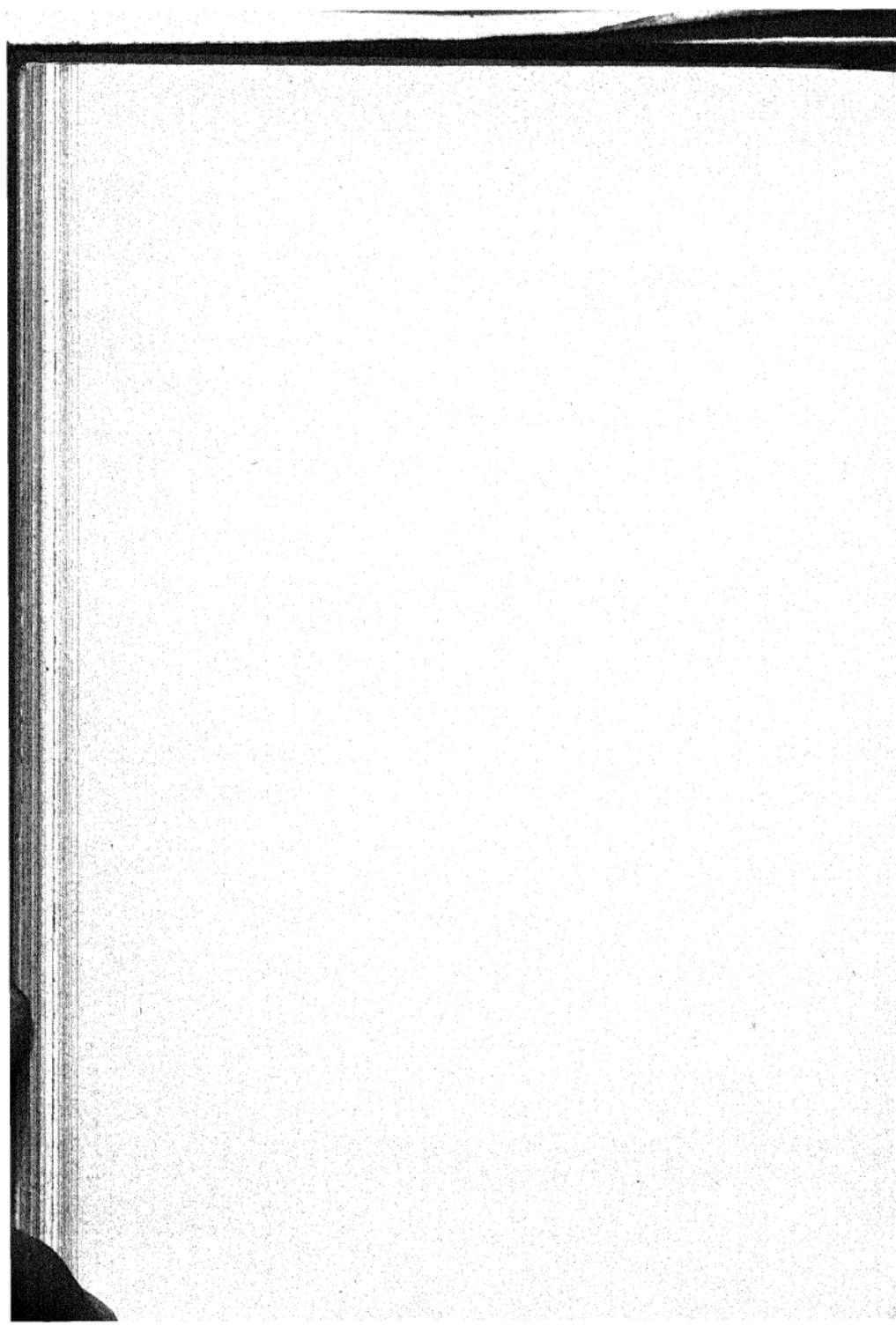
but a whole week was not infrequently employed in this voyage, and the average time of passage was not less than four entire days. In Fulton's first attempt to navigate this stream, the passage to Albany was performed in thirty-two hours, and the return in thirty.

[In 1802, Toussaint is kidnapped and taken to France.

In 1803, Napoleon sells Louisiana to the United States *Louisiana Purchase.*

for fifteen million dollars. The Dutch lose British Guiana and the British also capture Tobago and St. Lucia from France. Spain is forced by Napoleon to declare war against Great Britain. In 1805, Prussia receives Hanover and promises to exclude the British marine from her harbors.]

Spain declares war on England



THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR

(A.D. 1805)

CHARLES ALAN FYFFE

VENTS had occurred at sea which frustrated Napoleon's plan for an attack upon Great Britain. This attack, which in 1797 had been but lightly threatened, had, upon the renewal of war with England in 1803, become the object of Napoleon's most serious efforts. An army was concentrated at Boulogne sufficient to overwhelm the military forces of England, if once it could reach the opposite shore. Napoleon's thoughts were centred on a plan for obtaining the naval superiority in the Channel, if only for the few hours which it would take to transport the army from Boulogne to the English coast. It was his design to lure Nelson to the other side of the Atlantic by a feigned expedition against the West Indies, and, during the absence of the English admiral, to unite all the fleets at present lying blockaded in the French ports, as a cover for the invading armament. Admiral Villeneuve was ordered to sail for Martinique, and, after there meeting

*Failure of
Napoleon's
naval
designs.*

*Ville-
neuve's
orders.*

*Nelson
pursues
Ville-
neuve.*

with some other ships, to re-cross the Atlantic with all possible speed, and liberate the fleets blockaded in Ferrol, Brest, and Rochefort. The junction of the fleets would give Napoleon a force of fifty sail in the British Channel, a force more than sufficient to overpower all the squadrons which Great Britain could possibly collect for the defence of its shores. Such a design exhibited all the power of combination which marked Napoleon's greatest triumphs; but it required of an indifferent marine the precision and swiftness of movement which belonged to the land-forces of France; it assumed in the seamen of Great Britain the same absence of resource which Napoleon had found among the soldiers of the Continent. In the present instance, however, Napoleon had to deal with a man as far superior to all the admirals of France as Napoleon himself was to the generals of Austria and Prussia. Villeneuve set sail for the West Indies in the spring of 1805, and succeeded in drawing Nelson after him; but before he could re-cross the Atlantic, Nelson, incessantly pursuing the French squadron in the West Indian seas, and at length discovering its departure homeward, at Antigua (June 13), had warned the English Government of Villeneuve's movement by a message sent in the swiftest of the English brigs, since no possible effort could have brought the fleet itself up with Villeneuve, who was sixteen days in advance. The government, within twenty-four hours of receiving Nelson's message, sent orders to Sir Robert Calder instantly

to raise the blockades of Ferrol and Rochefort, and to wait for Villeneuve off Cape Finisterre. Here Villeneuve met the English fleet (July 22). He was worsted in a partial engagement, and retired into the harbor of Ferrol. The pressing orders of Napoleon forced the French admiral, after some delay, to attempt that movement on Brest and Rochefort on which the whole plan of the invasion of England depended. But Villeneuve was no longer in a condition to meet the English force assembled against him. He put back without fighting, and retired to Cadiz. All hope of carrying out the attack upon England was irretrievably lost.

Ville-neuve's partial defeat.

It only remained for Napoleon to avenge himself upon Austria through the army which was balked of its English prey. On the 1st of September, when the Austrians were now on the point of crossing the Inn, the camp of Boulogne was broken up. The army turned eastward, and distributed itself over all the roads leading from the Channel to the Rhine and the Upper Danube. For on the northeast the army of Hanover, commanded by Bernadotte, moved as its left wing, and converged upon a point in Southern Germany half-way between the frontiers of France and Austria. In the fables that long disguised the true character of every action of Napoleon, the admirable order of march now given to the French armies appears as the inspiration of a moment, due to the rebound of Napoleon's genius after learning the frustration of all his naval plans. In reality,

Napoleon marches on Austria.

March of French armies on Bavaria, September, 1805.

the employment of the "Army of England" against a Continental coalition had always been an alternative present to Napoleon's mind; and it was threateningly mentioned in his letters at a time when Villeneuve's failure was still unknown.

*Austrians
invade
Bavaria.*

*Mack's
reduced
force.*

*Ignorance
of French
movements.*

The only advantage which the Allies derived from the remoteness of the Channel army was that Austria was able to occupy Bavaria without resistance. Its army, commanded by General Mack, crossed the Inn on the 8th of September. The Elector of Bavaria was known to be secretly hostile to the coalition. The design of preventing his union with the French was a correct one; but in the actual situation of the allied armies it was one that could not be executed without running great risks. The preparations of Russia required more time than was allowed for them; no Russian troops could reach the Inn before the end of October; and, with an ill-timed generosity, Mack had reduced his own force below its intended strength, in order to improve the army which his rival, the Archduke Charles, led into Italy. The consequence was that the entire Austrian force operating in Western Germany did not exceed seventy thousand men. Any doubts, however, as to the prudence of an advance through Bavaria were silenced by the assurance that Napoleon had nothing nearer than Hanover and the British Channel. In total ignorance of the real movements of the French armies, Mack pushed on to the western limit of Bavaria, and reached the river Iller, the

border of Würtemberg, where he intended to wait for the Russians, who were to accompany his further march into France.

Here, in the first days of October, a strange rumor reached him of the presence of French troops on the Danube, to the east of his own position. With some misgiving as to the situation of the enemy, Mack began to concentrate his own scattered forces at Ulm. Another week revealed the true situation of affairs. Before the Allies were aware that Napoleon had left Paris, before it had dawned upon Mack that any resistance would be made to him on the east of the Rhine, the vanguard of the Army of the Channel and the Army of Hanover had crossed Northwestern Germany, and seized the roads by which Mack had advanced from Vienna. Every hour that Mack remained in Ulm brought new divisions of the French into the Bavarian towns and villages behind him. Escape was only possible by a retreat into the Tyrol, or by breaking through the French line while it was yet incompletely formed. Resolute action might still have saved the Austrian army; but the only energy that was shown was displayed in opposition to the General. The Archduke Ferdinand cut his way through the French with part of the cavalry; Mack remained in Ulm, and the iron circle closed around him. At the last moment, after the hopelessness of the situation had become clear even to himself, Mack was seized by an illusion that some great disaster had befallen the French

*Mack at
Ulm,
October,
1805.*

*Escape
of the
Archduke
Ferdinand.*

*Capitulation of Ulm.**Mack's disgrace.*

in their rear, and that in the course of a few days Napoleon would be in full retreat. "Let no man utter the word 'Surrender'"—he proclaimed in a general order of October 15th;—"the enemy is in the most fearful straits; it is impossible that he can continue more than a few days in the neighborhood. If provisions run short, we have three thousand horses to nourish us. I myself," continued the general, "will be the first to eat horse-flesh." Two days later the inevitable capitulation took place; and Mack, with 25,000 men, fell into the hands of the enemy without striking a blow. The hallucinations of this unlucky pedant would deserve no notice in history but for the light which they throw upon the qualities which in Austria were capable of passing for genius. Down to the campaign of 1805, Mack, in spite of his fatuities in Italy in 1799, had passed for a general of the first order. Such was his reputation at Vienna that Pitt himself had pressed the Emperor to make the gifted man commander-in-chief. Mack was brought to trial after the capitulation of Ulm, and sentenced by a court-martial to imprisonment and degradation; but, after some years, compunctions visited his colleagues, and he was restored to his rank and his honors. Mack's rehabilitation could not affect the judgment passed by Europe upon the campaign of 1805: it was a perfectly truthful confession that there were as many Macks as there were great officers in the Austrian service.

All France read with wonder Napoleon's bulletins

describing the bloodless capture of an entire army, and the approaching presentation of forty Austrian standards to the Senate at Paris. No imperial rhetoric acquainted the nation with an event which, within four days of the capitulation of Ulm, inflicted a heavier blow on France than Napoleon himself had ever dealt to any adversary. On the 21st of October, Nelson's crowning victory of Trafalgar, won over Villeneuve venturing out from Cadiz, annihilated the combined fleets of France and Spain. Nelson fell in the moment of his triumph; but the work which his last hours had achieved was one to which years prolonged in glory could have added nothing. He had made an end of the power of France upon the sea. Trafalgar was not only the greatest naval victory, it was the greatest and most momentous victory won either by land or by sea during the whole of the Revolutionary War. No victory, and no series of victories, of Napoleon produced the same effect upon Europe. Austria was in arms within five years of Marengo, and within four years of Austerlitz; Prussia was ready to retrieve the losses of Jena in 1813; a generation passed after Trafalgar before France again seriously threatened England at sea. The prospect of crushing the British navy, so long as England had the means to equip a navy, vanished: Napoleon henceforth set his hopes on exhausting England's resources by compelling every State on the Continent to exclude her commerce. Trafalgar forced him to impose his yoke upon

*Trafalgar,
October 21.*

*Effects of
the victory.*

all Europe, or to abandon the hope of conquering Great Britain. If national love and pride have idealized in our great sailor a character which, with its Homeric force and freshness, combined something of the violence and the self-love of the heroes of a rude age, the common estimate of Nelson's work in history is not beyond the truth. So long as France possessed a navy, Nelson sustained the spirit of England by his victories; his last triumph left England in such a position that no means remained to injure her but those which must result in the ultimate deliverance of the Continent.

THE GREAT TRIUMPHS OF NAPOLEON

(A.D. 1805-1812)

WILLIAM FRANCIS COLLIER

AT Austerlitz, a Moravian village, the rival armies faced each other,—80,000 Russians and Austrians pitted against a nearly equal number of French veterans. A frosty sun shone bright upon the yet unsullied battleground, as three Emperors—Alexander of Russia, Francis of Austria, and Napoleon of the French—rode up the heights to watch the great game played out, and direct the movements of the day. France and Russia were to cross bayonets for the first time at Austerlitz. Cannon thundered, steel glanced, whirlwinds of cavalry swept across the field; and all the terrors and fury of battle began to rage. The Russian lines were too long and thin. At once Napoleon saw the fault, and like lightning formed his plan. Pushing in the centre, and breaking up the wings, he attacked the fragments of the line separately, and swept them in flying crowds from the field. In vain the Russian Guard

*Battle of
Austerlitz.*

strove to turn the tide of battle. It was a total rout. Then began the horrors of pursuit. A crowd of poor wretches were fleeing over the ice which sheeted a neighboring lake, when the guns of the victors opened fire upon them, and they sank through the ripped and splintered floes. The loss of the allies exceeded 30,000—that of the French amounted to fully 12,000. The Treaty of Presburg, between France and Austria, was signed on the 26th of December.

*Changes in
Germany.*

One result of Napoleon's triumph was a great change in the constitution of Germany. The Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg were made kings; and many of the smaller States were formed, by the victor at Austerlitz, into the Confederation of the Rhine. Already, in 1804, Austria had been declared an empire, and the Emperor Francis II. of Germany had begun to call himself Emperor of Austria. This severance of Austria from Germany was formally completed in 1806.

The Emperor of the French then began to give away kingdoms. Seizing Naples early in 1806, he made his brother Joseph king. Turning the Batavian Republic into a Kingdom of Holland, he placed its crown on the head of his brother Louis. His brother-in-law, Murat, famed as the most dashing cavalry officer in Europe, became Grand Duke of Berg.

*Prostra-
tion of
Prussia.*

But this year is most remarkable for the complete prostration of Prussia. She had been playing a double part; and never has man or nation done so without

suffering just and heavy punishment. Although she professed to be the friend of England, she made no scruple about receiving Hanover from the Emperor, who was England's bitterest foe. Napoleon now changed his tone, having no longer any need for keeping this truckling power in good humor. In two great battles,—Auerstadt and Jena,—fought upon the same day (1806), he utterly crushed the military power with which, but half a century ago, the Great Frederic had wrought such marvels. Prussia lay writhing at his feet.

From the Prussian capital, which he entered in triumph a week after the bloody day of Jena, he launched the Berlin Decrees. Thunderbolts he meant them to be, scathing to the roots the oak of British commerce; but the petty squibs fizzed harmlessly at the foot of the great unshaken tree. The British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade. The Continent of Europe was to hold no correspondence, to transact no business whatever with Britain. British manufactures and produce were declared contraband. British property was a lawful prize. Letters to and from the shores of Britain were to be kept and opened at the post-offices. The defeat of these tremendous decrees was complete and very amusing. "Artillery, horse, and infantry were always defeated when opposed to his battalions; but printed ginghams were irresistible. There were conspiracies beyond the reach of his spies in every parlor, where the daughters were dressed in colored muslins; and cloths, cutlery, and

*The Berlin
Decrees.*

earthenware were smuggled wherever an English vessel could float."

We next find Russia facing the "Little Corporal," as his bronzed grenadiers loved to call him in their stories by the midnight watch-fire. It was in the depth of winter, in 1807, that the armies met on the field of Eylau. It was a drawn battle; but Napoleon, camping for eight days upon the reddened snow, claimed a great victory. But there was no doubt about the battle of Friedland, fought on the 14th of the following June. The Russians were driven across the Aller, with the loss of 60,000 men; and the Czar Alexander sought a peace, which was concluded at Tilsit on the Niemen. Prussia, who had plucked up heart again to dare French bayonets, had got her share of the beating, and was a partner in the humiliation of the peace.

The reaction now began. Having driven the royal house of Braganza from Portugal to Brazil, and having flung the Bourbons from the throne of Spain, he set his brother Joseph up, in place of the latter, as King of Spain. Murat was promoted to fill Joseph's vacant throne at Naples. The Spaniards drew their knives, called in British aid, and the Peninsular War began. The story of this war may be read in British history. Vimiera was its great opening field; and Vittoria (1813) the decisive triumph of its great hero, Wellington. The war in the Peninsula was conducted by Napoleon's marshals, for greater interests occupied himself at the heart of Europe.

*Battle of
Eylau.*

*The Pen-
insular
War.*

He paid a short visit to Spain in the first year of the struggle, going, as he said, to rid the Peninsula of "the hideous presence of the English leopards." He beat the Spaniards at Tudela, entered Madrid in triumph (Dec. 4), and tried without success to cut off the retreating army of Moore. Then news of an Austrian war recalled him to France after an absence of scarcely three months.

Austria now mustered half a million soldiers, bent upon washing out in French blood the stains which Marengo and Austerlitz had left upon her banner. All around her frontiers and within her boundaries a spirit had begun to burn which boded no good to Napoleon. Major Schill (soon slain at Stralsund) drilled his corps of Prussian volunteers; and Hofer, the innkeeper of Tyrol (afterward shot at Mantua), roused the chamois-hunters to a patriotic war. There was no time to lose. Napoleon, dashing over the Rhine, beat the Archduke Charles at Eckmuhl, bombarded Vienna, and carried his eagles again into the splendid streets which had witnessed their triumphant march not four years before; and all this in nine days (April 3-12). He then crossed the Danube to the left bank, and fought there the indecisive battle of Aspern. The Austrians broke down the bridge behind him, by throwing huge logs of timber into the swollen river. So he was obliged to shelter his army in the Island of Lobau, where he lay for six weeks. From this retreat he issued to fight the great battle of Wagram (1809). It was a terrible day. The thunder of

*Capture
of Vienna.*

*Battle of
Wagram.*

*Treaty of
Schön-
brunn.*

the sky almost drowned the peals of gunpowder, as the armies rushed to the charge. All the roof-tops of Vienna were crowded with pale, excited men and women, gazing on a sight such as has seldom been seen. Four hundred thousand men were on the field. By mid-day the Austrian centre was driven in, and Francis, who had watched the battle from a hill, rode madly from the scene of slaughter and defeat. Peace followed as a matter of course. The Treaty of Schönbrunn, signed on the 14th of the following October, yielded to the conqueror territory containing more than two millions of people.

*Napoleon's
marriage
to Maria
Louisa.*

Yet Napoleon did not despise Austria. Far from it. It was indeed great glory for the *parvenu* to humble to the dust an ancient house like that of Hapsburg. But he had still that hankering after ancient name and lineage which often disfigures the character of a self-made man. Divorcing the faithful and loving Josephine, whose only faults were that she was a plebeian and had no children, he married the Archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria, in the hope that this daughter of the Hapsburgs would bear him a son. A year afterward his hope was realized. On the 20th of March, 1811, a son was born to him, whom he created at once King of Rome. But this King of Rome, better known as the Duc de Reichstadt, was not destined to hold the sceptre of France. Upon the fall of his father, in 1814, he retired to the Austrian court, and died at Schönbrunn in 1832.

The year which preceded the Austrian marriage had

witnessed strange things in Rome. When Napoleon annexed to his far-spreading empire the Papal States, the poor Pope issued a bull of excommunication against the sacrilegious usurper. Napoleon, minding this once terrible instrument no more than the bite of a gnat, took a still more daring step. Sending his gendarmes one summer night to scale the walls of the palace on the Quirinal, he carried the Pope a captive to Savona, whence he removed him, in 1812, to Fontainebleau.

The position of Napoleon at this height of his power (1811) is well worth marking. The French Empire, over which he ruled, extended from the borders of Denmark to those of Naples. Holland, Naples, and Westphalia were ruled by his kinsmen. His brother Joseph held an insecure throne at Madrid. Bernadotte, one of his generals, had been chosen Crown Prince of Sweden.

Napoleon's Empire.

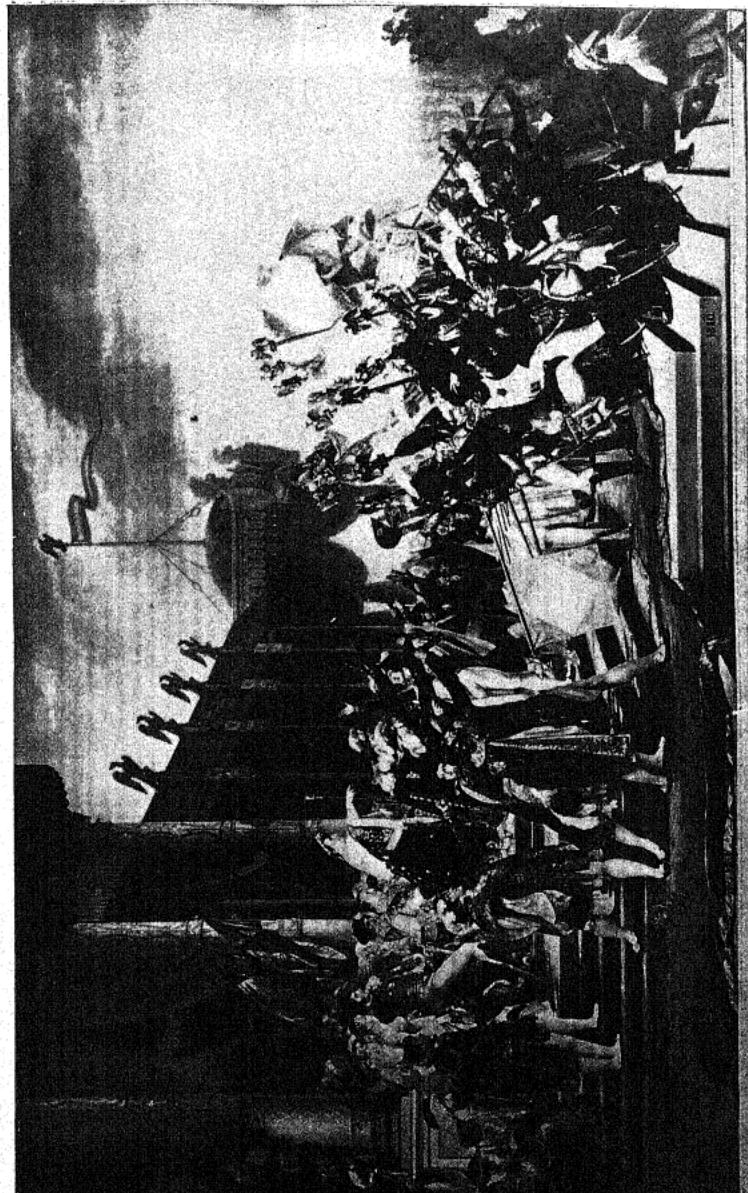
As Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, he held the German States in subjection, and he did the same kind office for the Helvetic Confederation, into which he had formed the cantons of Switzerland. Prussia and Austria crouched at his feet, and Russia seemed his firm ally. In four years all was changed. The magician's wand was broken, and his magnificent theatre of action had shrunk into a little house and garden on a barren rock far out in the tropic seas.

[In 1806, the Holy Roman Empire comes to an end. In 1807, the last direct heir of the Stuarts dies. The

*End of
the Holy
Roman
Empire.*

British bombard Copenhagen and seize the Danish fleet to keep it from Napoleon's clutches. Aaron Burr is tried for treason. In 1808, the importation of slaves into the United States is forbidden. In 1810, George III. finally loses his reason. Nathan Rothschild founds a great banking house. In 1811, the Russians seize Belgrade and capture a Turkish army. An engagement occurs between an American and an English ship. The Mamelukes are destroyed by Mehemet Ali Pacha. In 1812, Perceval, the Prime Minister of England, is murdered. Bernadotte forms an alliance with England and Russia against France. Napoleon re-establishes the Kingdom of Poland in consideration of assistance and invades Russia. The United States declares war against England and makes an unsuccessful attack upon Canada. In 1813, Turkey invades and subdues Servia.]

*The United
States de-
clares war
against
England.*



OFFICERS OF THE FRENCH ARMY SWEARING ALLEGIANCE TO THE EMPEROR (Pages 113-116)
FROM THE PAINTING BY DAVID

THE MOSCOW CAMPAIGN

(A.D. 1812)

CHARLES ALAN FYFFE

THE treaties which gave to Napoleon the hollow support of Austria and Prussia were signed early in the year 1812. During the next three months all Northern Germany was covered with enormous masses of troops and wagon-trains, on their way from the Rhine to the Vistula. No expedition had ever been organized on anything approaching to the scale of the invasion of Russia. In all the wars of the French since 1793 the enemy's country had furnished their armies with supplies, and the generals had trusted to their own exertions for everything but guns and ammunition. Such a method could not, however, be followed in an invasion of Russia. The country beyond the Niemen was no well-stocked garden, like Lombardy or Bavaria. Provisions for a mass of 450,000 men, with all the means of transport for carrying them far into Russia, had to be collected at Dantzig and the fortresses of the Vistula. No mercy was shown to the unfortunate coun-

*Prepara-
tions for
invasion
of Russia.*

Germany's sufferings.

tries whose position now made them Napoleon's harvest-field and storehouse. Prussia was forced to supplement its military assistance with colossal grants of supplies. The whole of Napoleon's troops upon the march through Germany lived at the expense of the towns and villages through which they passed; in Westphalia such was the ruin caused by military requisitions, that King Jerome wrote Napoleon, warning him to fear the despair of men who had nothing more to lose.

At length the vast stores were collected, and the invading army reached the Vistula. Napoleon himself quitted Paris on the 9th of May, and received the homage of the Austrian and Prussian sovereigns at Dresden. The eastward movement of the army continued. The Polish and East Prussian districts, which had been the scene of the combats of 1807, were again traversed by French columns. On the 23d of June the order was given to cross the Niemen, and enter Russian territory. Out of 600,000 troops whom Napoleon had organized for this campaign, 450,000 were actually upon the frontier. Of these, 300,000 formed the central army, under Napoleon's own command, at Kowno, on the Niemen; to the north, at Tilsit, there was formed a corps of 95,000, which included the contingent furnished by Prussia; the Austrians, under Schwarzenberg, with a small French division, lay to the south, on the borders of Galicia. Against the main army of Napoleon, the real invading force, the Russians could only bring up 150,000 men.

Napoleon crosses the Russian frontier.

These were formed into the First and Second Armies of the West. The First, or Northern Army, with which the Czar himself was present, numbered about 100,000, under the command of Barclay de Tolly; the Second Army, half that strength, was led by Prince Bagration. In Southern Poland and on the Lower Niemen the French auxiliary corps were faced by weak divisions. In all, the Russians had only 220,000 men to oppose to more than double that number of the enemy. The principal reinforcements which they had to expect were from the armies hitherto engaged with the Turks upon the Danube. Alexander found it necessary to make peace with the Porte at the cost of a part of the spoils of Tilsit. The Danubian provinces, with the exception of Bessarabia, were restored to the Sultan, in order that Russia might withdraw its forces from the south. Bernadotte, the Crown Prince of Sweden, concluded an alliance with the Czar against Napoleon. In return for the co-operation of a Swedish army, Alexander undertook, with an indifference to national right worthy of Napoleon himself, to wrest Norway from Denmark, and to annex it to the Swedish crown.

*The
Russian
forces.*

*Alexander
and
Bernadotte.*

The headquarters of the Russian army were at Wilna when Napoleon crossed the Niemen. It was unknown whether the French intended to advance upon Moscow or upon St. Petersburg; nor had any systematic plan of the campaign been adopted by the Czar. The idea of falling back before the enemy was indeed familiar in

Russia since the war between Peter the Great and Charles XII. of Sweden, and there was no want of good counsel in favor of a defensive warfare; but neither the Czar nor any one of his generals understood the simple theory of a retreat in which no battles at all should be fought. The most that was understood by a defensive system was the occupation of an intrenched position for battle, and a retreat to a second line of intrenchments before the engagement was repeated. The actual course of the campaign was no result of a profound design; it resulted from the disagreement of the generals' plans, and the frustration of them all. It was intended, in the first instance, to fight a battle at Drissa, on the river Dwina. In this position, which was supposed to cover the roads both to Moscow and St. Petersburg, a great intrenched camp had been formed, and here the Russian army was to make its first stand against Napoleon. Accordingly, as soon as the French crossed the Niemen, orders were given to both Barclay and Bagration to fall back upon Drissa. But the movements of the French army were too rapid for the Russian commanders to effect their junction. Bagration, who lay at some distance to the south, was cut off from his colleague, and forced to retreat along the eastern road toward Witepsk. Barclay, who reached Drissa in safety, but knew himself to be unable to hold it alone against 300,000 men, evacuated the lines without waiting for the approach of the French, and fell back in the direction taken by the second army.

*Russians
intend to
fight at
Drissa.*

*Russian
armies
severed,
and retreat
on Witepsk.*

The first movement of defense had thus failed, and the Czar now quitted the camp, leaving to Barclay the command of the whole Russian forces.

Napoleon entered Wilna, the capital of Russian Poland, on the 28th of June. The last Russian detachments had only left it a few hours before; but the French were in no condition for immediate pursuit. Before the army reached the Niemen, the unparalleled difficulties of the campaign had become only too clear. The vast wagon-trains broke down on the highways. The stores were abundant, but the animals which had to transport them died of exhaustion. No human genius, no perfection of foresight and care, could have achieved the enormous task which Napoleon had undertaken. In spite of a year's preparations, the French suffered from hunger and thirst from the moment that they set foot on Russian soil. Thirty thousand stragglers had left the army before it reached Wilna; twenty-five thousand sick were in the hospitals; the transports were at an unknown distance in the rear. At the end of six days' march from the Niemen, Napoleon found himself compelled to halt for nearly three weeks. The army did not leave Wilna till the 16th of July, when Barclay had already evacuated the camp at Drissa. When at length a march became possible, Napoleon moved upon the Upper Dwina, hoping to intercept Barclay upon the road to Witepsk; but difficulties of transport again brought him to a halt, and the Russian commander reached Witepsk be-

*Collapse of
the French
transport.*

*Delay at
Wilna.*

*Barclay and
Bagration
unite at
Smolensko.*

fore his adversary. Here Barclay drew up for battle, supposing Bagration's army to be but a short distance to the south. In the course of the night intelligence arrived that Bagration's army was nowhere near the rallying-point, but had been driven back toward Smolensko. Barclay immediately gave up the thought of fighting a battle, and took the Smolensko road himself, leaving his watch-fires burning. His movement was unperceived by the French; the retreat was made in good order, and the two several Russian armies at length effected their junction at a point three hundred miles distant from the frontier.

Napoleon, disappointed of battle, entered Witepsk on the evening after the Russians had abandoned it (July 28). Barclay's escape was, for the French, a disaster of the first magnitude, for it extinguished all hope of crushing the larger of the two Russian armies by overwhelming numbers in one great and decisive engagement. The march of the French during the last twelve days showed at what cost every further step must be made. Since quitting Wilna, the 50,000 sick and stragglers had risen to 100,000. Fever and disease struck down whole regiments. The provisioning of the army was beyond all human power. Of the 200,000 men who still remained, it might almost be calculated in how many weeks the last would perish. So fearful was the prospect, that Napoleon himself thought of abandoning any further advance until the next year, and of permitting the army to enter into

*The French
waste away.*

winter quarters upon the Dwina. But the conviction that all Russian resistance would end with the capture of Moscow hurried him on. The army left Witepsk on the 13th of August, and followed the Russians to Smolensko. Here the entire Russian army clamored for battle. Barclay stood alone in perceiving the necessity for retreat. The generals caballed against him; the soldiers were on the point of mutiny; the Czar himself wrote to express his impatience for an attack upon the French. Barclay, nevertheless, persisted in his resolution to abandon Smolensko. He so far yielded to the army as to permit the rearguard to engage in a bloody struggle with the French when they assaulted the town; but the evacuation was completed under cover of night; and when the French made their entrance into Smolensko on the next morning they found it deserted and in ruins. The surrender of Smolensko was the last sacrifice that Barclay could extort from Russian pride. He no longer opposed the universal cry for battle, and the retreat was continued only with the intention of halting at the first strong position. Barclay himself was surveying a battle-ground when he heard that the command had been taken out of his hands. The Czar had been forced by national indignation at the loss of Smolensko to remove this able soldier, who was a Livonian by birth, and to transfer the command to Kutusoff, a thorough Russian, whom a lifetime spent in victories over the Turks had

*The French
enter Smo-
lensko.*

*Barclay
superseded
by Kutusoff.*

made, in spite of his defeat at Austerlitz, the idol of the nation.

When Kutusoff reached the camp, the prolonged miseries of the French advance had already reduced the invaders to the number of the army opposed to them. As far as Smolensko the French had at least not suffered from the hostility of the population, who were Poles, not Russians. On reaching Smolensko they entered a country where every peasant was a fanatical enemy. The villages were burnt down by their inhabitants, the corn destroyed, and the cattle driven into the woods. Every day's march onward from Smolensko cost the French 3,000 men. On reaching the river Moskwa, in the first week of September, 175,000 out of Napoleon's 300,000 soldiers were in the hospitals, or missing, or dead. The Russians, on the other hand, had received reinforcements which covered their losses at Smolensko; and, although detachments had been sent to support the army of Riga, Kutusoff was still able to place 125,000 men in the field.

On the 5th of September the Russian army drew up for battle at Borodino, on the Moskwa, seventy miles west of the capital. At early morning, on the 7th, the French advanced to the attack. The battle was, in proportion to its numbers, the most sanguinary of modern times. Forty thousand French, thirty thousand Russians were struck down. At the close of the day the French were in possession of the enemy's ground, but the Russians, unbroken in their order, had only retreated to a

Cost of the advance.

Battle of Borodino.

second line of defence. Both sides claimed the victory; neither had won it. It was no catastrophe such as Napoleon required for the decision of the war; it was no triumph sufficient to save Russia from the necessity of abandoning its capital. Kutusoff had sustained too heavy a loss to face the French beneath the walls of Moscow. Peace was no nearer for the 70,000 men who had been killed or wounded in the fight. The French steadily advanced; the Russians retreated to Moscow, and evacuated the capital when their generals decided that they could not encounter the French assault. The Holy City was left undefended before the invader. But the departure of the army was the smallest part of the evacuation. The inhabitants, partly of their own free will, partly under the compulsion of the Governor, abandoned the city in a mass. No gloomy or excited crowd, as at Vienna and Berlin, thronged the streets to witness the entrance of the great conqueror, when, on the 14th of September, Napoleon took possession of Moscow. His troops marched through silent and deserted streets. In the solitude of the Kremlin, Napoleon received the homage of a few foreigners, who alone could be collected by the servants to tender to him the submission of the city.

*The
Russians
evacuate
Moscow.*

But the worst was yet to come. On the night after *Moscow* Napoleon's entry, fires broke out in different parts of *fired*. Moscow. They were ascribed at the first to accident; but when on the next day the French saw the flames gaining ground in every direction, and found that all

the means for extinguishing fire had been removed from the city, they understood the doom to which Moscow had been devoted by its own defenders. Count Rostopchin, the Governor, had determined on the destruction of Moscow without the knowledge of the Czar. The doors of the prisons were thrown open. Rostopchin gave the signal by setting fire to his own palace, and let loose his bands of incendiaries over the whole of the city. For five days the flames rose and fell: when, on the evening of the 20th, the last fires ceased, three-fourths of Moscow lay in ruins.

*Napoleon's
prize.*

Such was the prize for which Napoleon had sacrificed 200,000 men, and engulfed the weak remnant of his army six hundred miles deep in an enemy's country. Through all the terrors of the advance Napoleon had held fast to the belief that Alexander's resistance would end with the fall of his capital. The events that accompanied the entry of the French into Moscow shook his confidence; yet even now Napoleon could not believe that the Czar remained firm against all thoughts of peace. His experience in all earlier wars had given him confidence in the power of one conspicuous disaster to unhinge the resolutions of kings. His trust in the deepening impression made by the fall of Moscow was fostered by negotiations begun by Kutusoff for the very purpose of delaying the French retreat. For five weeks Napoleon remained at Moscow as if spellbound, unable to convince himself of his powerlessness to break Alexander's determination,

*Russian
craft.*

unable to face a retreat which would display to all Europe the failure of his arms and the termination of his career of victory. At length the approach of winter forced him to action. It was impossible to provision the army at Moscow during the winter months, even if there had been nothing to fear from the enemy. Even the mocking overtures of Kutusoff had ceased. The frightful reality could no longer be concealed. On the 19th of October the order for retreat was given. It was not the destruction of Moscow but the departure of its inhabitants, that had brought the conqueror to ruin. *Cause of ruin.*

Above two thousand houses were still standing; but whether the buildings remained or perished made little difference; the whole value of the capital to Napoleon was lost when the inhabitants, whom he could have forced to procure supplies for his army, disappeared. Vienna and Berlin had been of such incalculable service to Napoleon because the whole native administration placed itself under his orders, and every rich and important citizen became a hostage for the activity of all the rest. When the French gained Moscow, they gained nothing beyond the supplies which were at that moment in the city. All was lost to Napoleon when the class who in other capitals had been his instruments fled at his approach. The conflagration of Moscow acted upon all Europe as a signal of inextinguishable national hatred; as a military operation it neither accelerated the retreat

of Napoleon, nor added to the miseries which his army had to undergo.

Napoleon leaves Moscow.

The French forces which quitted Moscow in October numbered about 100,000 men. Reinforcements had come in during the occupation of the city, and the health of the soldiers had been in some degree restored by a month's rest. Everything now depended upon gaining a line of retreat where food could be found. Though but a third part of the army which entered Russia in the summer, the army which left Moscow was still large enough to protect itself against the enemy, if allowed to retreat through a fresh country; if forced back upon the devastated line of its advance, it was impossible for it to escape destruction. Napoleon therefore determined to make for Kaluga, on the south of Moscow, and to endeavor to gain a road to Smolensko far distant from that by which he had come. The army moved from Moscow in a southern direction. But its route had been foreseen by Kutusoff. At the end of four days' march it was met by a Russian corps at Jaroslavitz. A bloody struggle left the French in possession of the road: they continued their advance; but it was only to find that Kutusoff, with his full strength, had occupied a line of heights further south, and barred the way to Kaluga. The effort of an assault was beyond the powers of the French. Napoleon surveyed the enemy's position, and recognized the fatal necessity of abandoning the march southward, and returning to the wasted road by which he had ad-

Kutusoff's successful tactics.

vanced. The meaning of the backward movement was quickly understood by the army. From the moment of quitting Jaroslavitz, disorder and despair increased with every march. Thirty thousand men were lost upon the road before a pursuer appeared in sight. When, on the 2d of November, the army reached Wiazma, it numbered no more than 65,000 men.

Kutusoff was unadventurous in pursuit. The necessity of moving his army along a parallel road south of the French, in order to avoid starvation, diminished the opportunities for attack; but the general himself disliked risking his forces, and preferred to see the enemy's destruction effected by the elements. At Wiazma, where, on the 3d of November, the French were for the first time attacked in force, Kutusoff's own delay alone saved them from total ruin. In spite of heavy loss, the French kept possession of the road, and secured their retreat to Smolensko, where stores of food had been accumulated, and where other and less exhausted French troops were at hand.

Up to the 6th of November the weather had been sunny and dry. On the 6th, the long delayed terrors of Russian winter broke upon the pursuers and the pursued. Snow darkened the air, and hid the last traces of vegetation from the starving cavalry trains. The temperature sank at times to forty degrees of frost. Death came, sometimes in the unfelt release from misery, sometimes in horrible forms of mutilation and disease. Both armies

Kutusoff follows by parallel road.

Frost, November 6.

*French
reach
Smolensko,
November 9.*

*Converging
Russian
armies.*

were exposed to the same sufferings; but the Russians had at least such succor as their countrymen could give: where the French sank, they died. The order of war disappeared under conditions which made life itself the accident of a meal or of a place by the campfire. Though most of the French soldiery continued to carry their arms, the Guard alone kept its separate formation; the other regiments marched in confused masses. From the 9th to the 13th of November these starving bands arrived one after another at Smolensko, expecting that here their sufferings would end. But the organization for distributing the stores accumulated in Smolensko no longer existed. The perishing crowds were left to find shelter wherever they could; sacks of corn were thrown to them for food.

It was impossible for Napoleon to give his wearied soldiers rest, for new Russian armies were advancing from the north and the south to cut off their retreat. From the Danube and from the Baltic Sea troops were pressing forward to their meeting-point upon the rear of the invader. Wittgenstein, moving southward at the head of the army of the Dwina, had overpowered the French corps stationed upon that river, and made himself master of Witepsk. The army of Bucharest, which had been toiling northward ever since the beginning of August, had advanced to within a few days' march of its meeting-point with the army of the Dwina upon the line of Napoleon's communications. Before Napoleon reached

Smolensko he sent orders to Victor, who was at Smolensko with some reserves, to march against Wittgenstein and drive him back upon the Dwina. Victor set out on his mission. During the short halt of Napoleon in Smolensko, Kutusoff pushed forward to the west of the French, and took post at Krasnoi, thirty miles further on the road by which Napoleon had to pass. The retreat of the French seemed to be actually cut off. Had the Russian general dared to face Napoleon and his Guards, he might have held the French in check until the arrival of the two auxiliary armies from the North and South enabled him to capture Napoleon with his entire force. Kutusoff, however, preferred a partial and certain victory to a struggle with Napoleon for life or death. He permitted Napoleon and the Guard to pass by unattacked, and then fell upon the hinder divisions of the French army (November 17). These unfortunate troops were successively cut to pieces. Twenty-six thousand were made prisoners. Ney, with a part of the rearguard, only escaped by crossing the Dnieper on the ice. Of the army that had quitted Moscow, there now remained but 10,000 combatants and 20,000 followers. Kutusoff himself was brought to such a state of exhaustion that he could carry the pursuit no further, and entered into quarters upon the Dnieper.

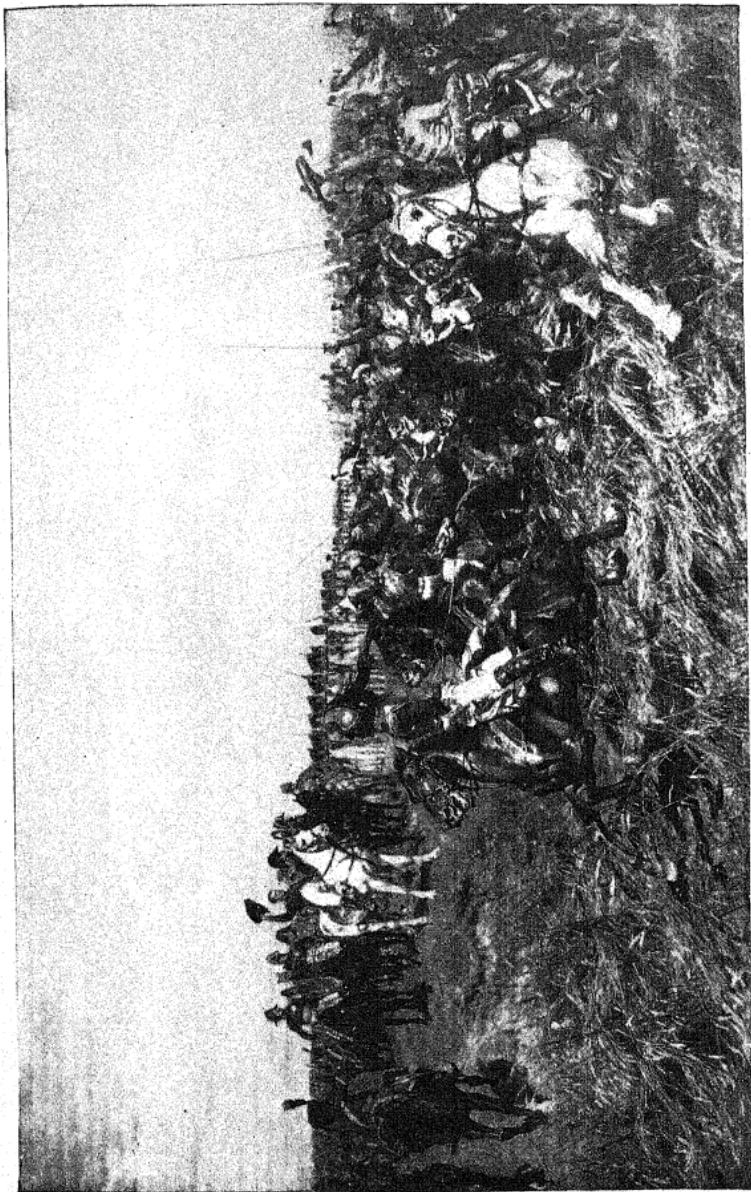
*Battle of
Krasnoi.*

It was a few days after the battle of Krasnoi that the *Victor joins
Napoleon.*

Dwina, suddenly encountered the remnant of Napoleon's army. Though aware that Napoleon was in retreat, they knew nothing of the calamities that had befallen him, and were struck with amazement when, in the middle of a forest, they met with what seemed more like a miserable troop of captives than any part of an army upon the march. Victor's soldiers, of a mere auxiliary force, found themselves more than double the effective strength of the whole army of Moscow. Their arrival again placed Napoleon at the head of 30,000 disciplined troops, and gave the French a gleam of victory in the last and seemingly most hopeless struggle in the campaign. Admiral Tchitchagoff, in command of the army marching from the Danube, had at length reached the line of Napoleon's retreat, and established himself at Borisov, where the road through Poland crosses the river Beresina. The bridge was destroyed by the Russians, and Tchitchagoff opened communication with Wittgenstein's army, which lay only a few miles to the north. It appeared as if the retreat of the French was now finally intercepted, and the surrender of Napoleon inevitable. Yet even in this hopeless situation the military skill and daring of the French worked with something of its ancient power. The army reached the Beresina; Napoleon succeeded in withdrawing the enemy from the real point of passage: bridges were thrown across the river, and after desperate fighting a great part of the army made good its footing upon the western bank (November 28).

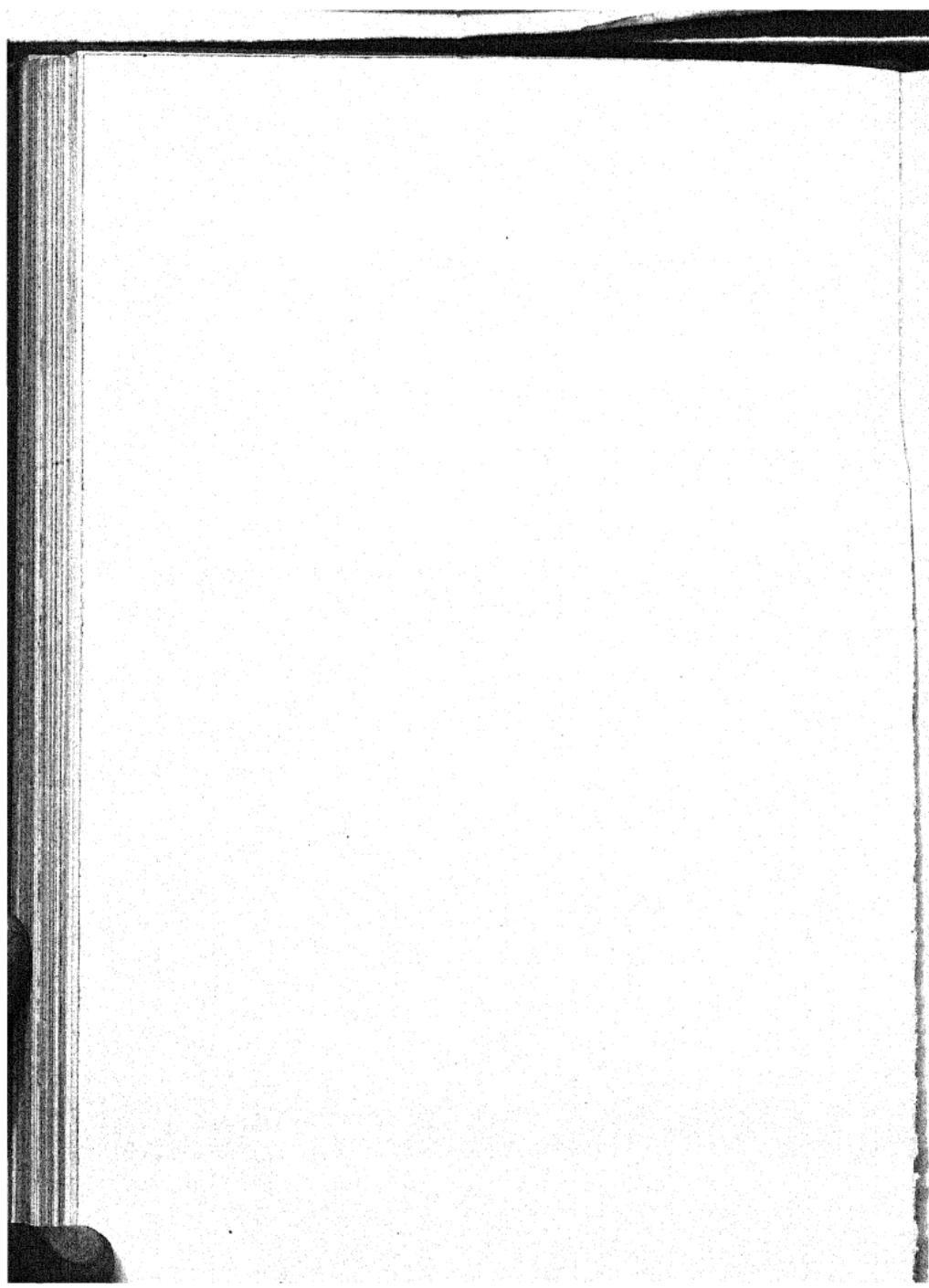
Napoleon outwits Tchitchagoff.

Passage of the Beresina.



FRIEDLAND—1807 (Page 116)
FROM THE PAINTING BY MEISSONIER

COURTESY METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART



But the losses even among the effective troops were enormous. The fate of the miserable crowd that followed them, torn by the cannon-fire of the Russians, and precipitated into the river by the breaking of one of the bridges, has made the passage of the Beresina a synonym for the utmost degree of human woe.

This was the last engagement fought by the army. The Guards still preserved their order: Marshal Ney still found soldiers capable of turning upon the pursuer with his own steady and unflagging courage; but the bulk of the army struggled forward in confused crowds, harassed by the Cossacks, and laying down their arms by thousands before the enemy. The frost, which had broken up on the 19th, returned on the 30th of November with even greater severity. Twenty thousand fresh troops, which joined the army between the Beresina and the Wilna, scarcely arrested the process of dissolution. On the 3d of December Napoleon quitted the army. Wilna itself was abandoned with all its stores; and when at length the fugitives reached the Niemen, they numbered in all little more than 20,000. Here, six months earlier, 300,000 men had crossed with Napoleon. Ninety thousand more had joined the army in the course of its retreat. Of all this host, scarcely the twentieth part reached the Prussian frontier. A hundred and seventy thousand remained prisoners in the hands of the Russians; a great number had perished. Of the 20,000 men who now beheld the Niemen, probably not 7,000 had

*Demor-
alization
of the
survivors.*

*French
reach the
Niemen,
Decem-
ber 13.*

*Kutusoff's
error.*

crossed with Napoleon. In the presence of a catastrophe so overwhelming and so unparalleled the Russian generals might well be content with their own share in the work of destruction. Yet the event proved that Kutusoff had done ill in sparing the extremest effort to capture or annihilate his foe. Not only was Napoleon's own escape the pledge of continued war, but the remnant that escaped with him possessed a military value out of all proportion to its insignificant numbers. The best of the army were the last to succumb. Out of those few thousands who endured to the end a very large proportion were veteran officers, who immediately took their place at the head of Napoleon's newly raised armies, and gave to them a military efficiency soon to be bitterly proved by Europe on many a German battlefield.

*Effects
of the
campaign.*

Three hundred thousand men were lost to a conqueror who could still stake the lives of half a million more. The material power of Napoleon, though largely, was not fatally, diminished by the Russian campaign; it was through its moral effect, first proved in the action of Prussia, that the retreat from Moscow created a new order of things in Europe.

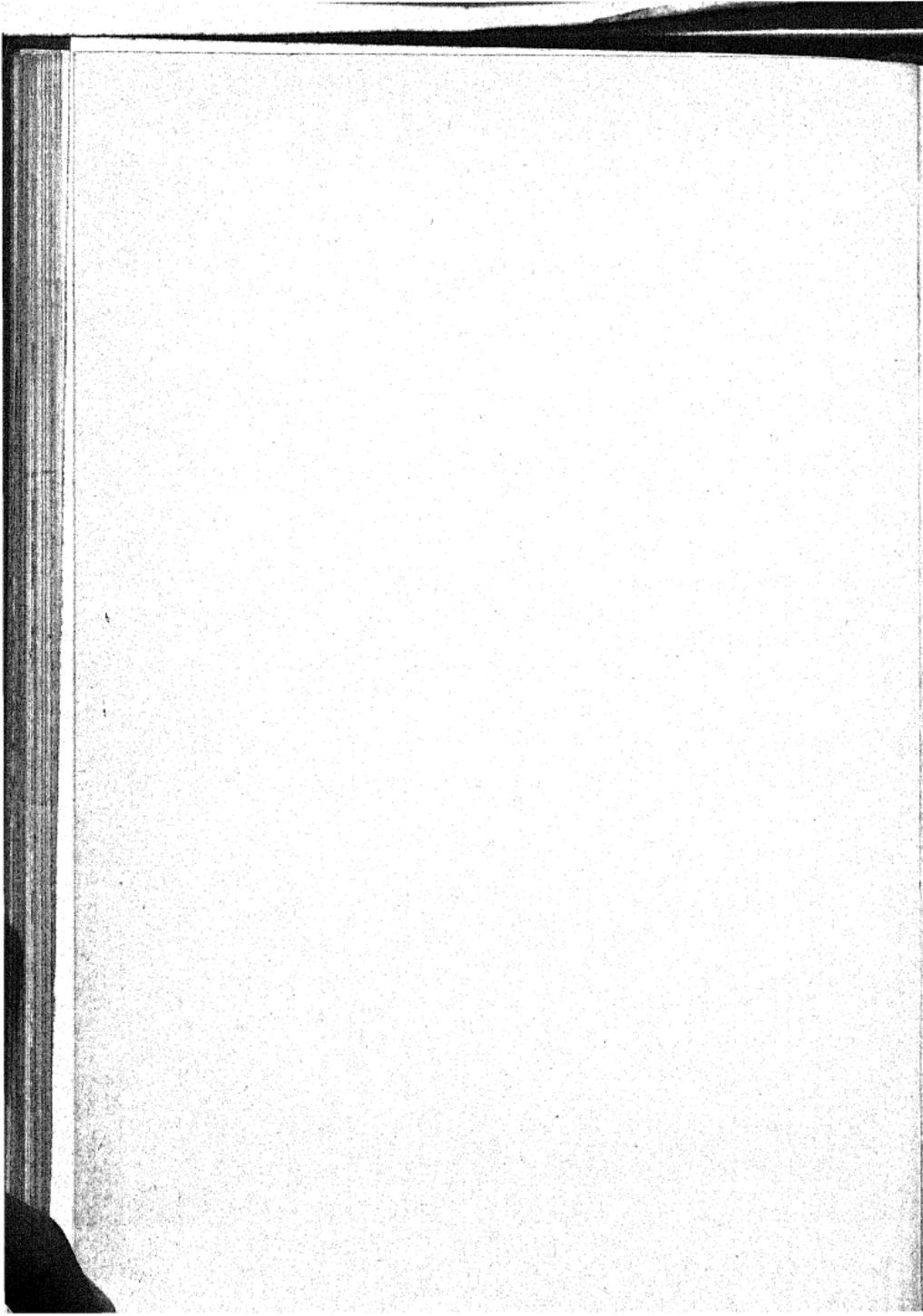
*British
defeat the
French at
Vittoria.*

[In 1813, the British defeat the French at Vittoria, and the battles of the Pyrenees, storming St. Sebastian and taking Pampluna. After the French defeat at Leipzig, Italy revolts and the Austrians defeat Eugene Beauharnais. The French are also expelled from Holland,

THE MOSCOW CAMPAIGN

and the son of the former stadholder is restored as William I. Denmark gives up alliance with France, and Norway is ceded to Sweden. England acquires Heligoland. Russia penetrates to the Caspian Sea. Trade with India is opened to all nations, and the British are defeated on Lake Erie.]

*The British
defeated on
Lake Erie.*



THE BATTLE OF VITTORIA

(A.D. 1813)

SIR ARCHIBALD ALISON

THE immense baggage trains of Joseph's army had now fallen back into the basin of Vittoria, and seventy thousand men were assembled to protect their retreat into France. But it seemed hardly possible that even that large force could secure the safe transit of such an enormous multitude of carriages; and yet how could they be abandoned without confessing defeat, and relinquishing, at the same time, the whole ammunition wagons and military stores of the army? The rapacity of the French authorities in Spain; the general spoliation which, from the marshals downward, they had exercised under the imperial orders in every part of the country, now fell with just but terrible force upon them: their gallant army was about to be overwhelmed by the immensity of its spoil. In retreating through Madrid and the two Castiles, the French authorities had levied contributions surpassing all the former ones in severity and magnitude; and the enormous

*Concen-
tration of
Joseph's
army.*

Immense French spoil.

Soult's collection of paintings.

sums raised in this way, amounting to five millions and a half of dollars, were all existing in hard cash, and constituted no inconsiderable part of the weight with which the army was encumbered. Not content with these pecuniary exactions, both Joseph and his generals had faithfully followed the example set them by the Emperor, in collecting and bringing off all the most precious works of art which adorned the Spanish capital and provinces. All the marshals, from Murat, who commenced the pillage, in 1808, had gratified themselves by seizing upon the finest paintings which were to be found in convents or private palaces in every part of the country; and Marshal Soult, in particular, had, from the rich spoils of the Andalusian convents, formed the noble collection of paintings by Murillo and Velasquez which now adorns his hotel at Paris. But when Joseph and his whole civil functionaries came to break up finally from Madrid, the work of spoliation went on on a greater scale, and extended to every object of interest, whether from beauty, rarity, or antiquity, which was to be found in the royal palaces or museums. Many of the finest works of Titian, Raphael, and Correggio were got hold of in this manner, especially from the Escorial and the royal palace at Madrid; while all the archives and museums in the capital and in Old Castile had been compelled to yield up their most precious contents to accompany the footsteps of the fugitive monarch. All this precious spoil was dragged along in endless convoy in

the rear of the French army; and when it halted and faced about in the basin of Vittoria, it was rather from a sense of the evident impossibility of transporting the prodigious mass in safety through the approaching defiles of the Pyrenees, than from any well-founded hope of being able to resist the shock of the Anglo-Portuguese army.

The basin of Vittoria, which has become immortal from the battle, decisive of the fate of the Peninsula, which was fought within its bosom, is a small plain, about eight miles in length by six in breadth, situated in an elevated plateau among the mountains. It is bounded on the north and east by the commencement of the Pyrenean range, and on the west by a chain of rugged mountains, which separates the province of Alava from that of Biscay.

The strength of the French position consisted chiefly in the great number of bridges, which the allied forces had to pass, over the numerous mountain streams which descend into the basin of Vittoria, some of which, particularly that of Puebla and Nanclares, to the south of Vittoria, and that of Gamarra Mayor and Ariega, to the north of that town, were of great strength, and easily susceptible of defence. The ridges, too, which cross the plain, afforded successive defensive positions, the last of which was close to the town of Vittoria. On the other hand, the weakness of their situation consisted in the single line of retreat passable for the carriages of the

*Embarrass-
ment of
the great
convoy.*

*The basin
of Vittoria.*

*The French
position.*

army, which was kept open for them in case of disaster; and the appalling dangers which awaited them if their army in the plain met with a serious reverse, and either lost the command of the great road to Bayonne, or was driven, with its immense files of ammunition and baggage wagons, into the rough mountain road leading to Pampeluna.

*Advance of
the British.*

At daybreak on the morning of the 21st, the whole British columns were in motion, and the centre and right soon surmounted the high ground which screened their night bivouac from the sight of the enemy; and their masses appeared in imposing strength on the summit of the ridges which shut in on the south the basin of Vittoria. The column on the left moved toward Mendoza, while Hill, at ten o'clock, reached the pass of Puebla, into which he immediately descended, and pressing through, began extending into the plain in front; Murillo's Spaniards, with surprising vigor, swarming up the steep and rocky ascents on his right. There, however, the French made a stout resistance; Murillo was wounded, but still kept the field; fresh troops reinforced their line on the craggy heights, so that Hill was obliged to send the 71st, and a battalion of light infantry of Walker's brigade, to Murillo's support, under Colonel Cadogan. Hardly had he reached the summit, when that noble officer fell while cheering on his men to charge the enemy; and, though mortally wounded, he refused to be taken to the rear, and still rested on the field,

*Charge of
the Highlanders.*

watching with dying eyes the advance of his heroic Highlanders along the ridge. Still the battle was maintained with extraordinary resolution on the summit, and it was only by sending fresh troops to their support, and step by step, by force of sheer fighting, that the French were at length borne backward to nearly opposite Subijana; while Hill, in the valley below, encouraged by the progress of the scarlet uniforms on the summit on his right, pressed vigorously forward, and emerging from the defile of Puebla, carried by storm the village of Subijana, and extended his line into communication with his extreme right on the summit of the ridge.

Hill's success.

While this bloody conflict was going on on the steeps above the Zadorra on the right, Wellington himself, with the centre, had surmounted the heights in his front, and descended in great strength into the plain of Vittoria. His troops met with no serious opposition till they came to the bridges by which the rivers in the bottom were crossed; but as they were all occupied by the enemy, and the rocky thickets on their sides filled with tirailleurs, a warm exchange of musketry began, especially at the bridge of Nanclares, opposite the fourth division, and that of Villodar, by which the light divisions were to cross. The attack on these bridges was delayed till the third and seventh divisions, who formed the reserves of the centre, had come up to their ground, and they were somewhat retarded by the roughness of the hills over which they had to march; and, mean-

Progress of Wellington in the centre.

Obstinate resistance.

while, Wellington sent orders to Hill to arrest the progress of his extreme right on the summit of the ridge, in order that the whole army might advance abreast. Meanwhile, a Spanish peasant brought information that the bridge of Tres Puentes was negligently guarded, and offered himself to guide the light division over it; and the heads of the columns of the third and seventh divisions, forming the left centre, having now appeared on their ground, the advance was resumed at all points, both in the centre and on the right. Kempt's brigade of the light division, led by the brave peasant, soon gained the bridge; the fifteenth hussars, coming up at a canter, dashed by single file over, and the arch was won. It was now one o'clock; the firing was renewed with redoubled vigor on the heights above Subijana, while faint columns of white smoke, accompanied by a sound like distant thunder, showed that Graham's attack on Gamarra Mayor, in the enemy's rear, had commenced. At this moment the third and seventh divisions were moving rapidly down to the bridge of Mendoza; but the enemy's light troops and guns kept up a most vigorous fire upon the advancing masses, until the riflemen of the light division, who had got across at Tres Puentes, charged them in flank, when the position was abandoned, and the British left crossed without further opposition. The whole French centre, alarmed by the progress which Graham was making in their rear, now retreated toward Vittoria, not, however, in disorder, but facing about at

*Capture of
the Tres
Puentes
bridge.*

every defensible position to retard the enemy; while the British troops continued to advance in pursuit in admirable order, their regiments and squadrons surmounting the rugged inequalities in the ground with the most beautiful precision.

The decisive blow, however, had meanwhile been struck by Graham on the left. That noble officer, who, at the age of sixty-eight, possessed all the vigor of twenty-five, and who was gifted with the true eye of a general, had started before daylight from his bivouac in the mountains on the left, and by eleven o'clock, after a most fatiguing and toilsome march over the hills, reached the heights above Gamarra Mayor and Ariega, which were strongly occupied by the French right under Reille. General Oswald, who commanded the head of Graham's corps, consisting of the fifth division, Pack's Portuguese, and Longa's Spaniards, immediately commenced the attack, and not only drove the enemy from the heights, but got possession of Gamarra Mayor, which cut off the road to Durango. Gamarra Mayor was the next object of attack; and the French, aware of its importance, as commanding the great road to Bayonne, made the most strenuous efforts for its defence. At length Robinson's brigade of the fifth division burst in, bearing down all opposition, and capturing three guns; but Reille's men had barricaded the opposite end of the bridge, and their fire from the windows of the houses was so severe that they retained the opposite bank of the Zadorra. At the

*Retreat of
the French
centre.*

*Decisive
success of
Graham on
the left.*

*Capture of
Gamarra
Mayor.*

*Death of
General
Sarrut.*

*Retreat of
the French.*

same time, the Germans under Halket had, in the most gallant manner, assaulted the village of Abechuco, which commanded the bridge of Ariegua. It was at length carried by the brave Germans and Bradford's Portuguese; but they were unable, any more than at Gamarra Mayor, to force the bridge, and a murderous fire of musketry was kept up from the opposite sides, without enabling either party to dislodge the other from its position. But, meanwhile, General Sarrut was killed, and some British brigades, pushing on, got possession of the great road from Vittoria to Bayonne, and immediately the cry spread through the French army that their retreat was cut off and all was lost.

It was no longer a battle, but a retreat; yet, in conducting it, the French soldiers maintained the high character for intrepidity and steadiness which had rendered them the terror and admiration of Europe. A large body of skirmishers was thrown out to check the advance of the pursuing columns, and fifty guns, placed in the rear, which were worked with extraordinary vigor, retarded for some time the pursuit of the British centre. Wellington, however, brought up several British batteries, and the enemy were at length forced back to the ridge in front of Gomecha. An obstinate conflict took place in Arinez, into which Picton plunged at the head of the riflemen of his division; but at length the village was carried; the 87th, under Colonel Gough, stormed Hermedad, and the French in Subijana, finding their right

forced back, were obliged to retreat two miles toward Vittoria in a disordered mass. Thus the action became a sort of running fight or cannonade, which continued for six miles; but the French, notwithstanding all their efforts, were unable to hold any position long enough to enable the carriages in the rear to draw off; and as they were all thrown back into the little plain in front of Vittoria, the throng there became excessive, and already the cries of despair, as on the banks of the Beresina, were heard from the agitated multitude. Joseph now ordered the retreat to be conducted by the only road which remained open, that to Pampeluna; but it was too late to draw off any of the carriages; and "as the English shot went booming overhead," says an eyewitness, "the vast crowd started and swerved with a convulsive movement, while a dull and horrid sound of distress arose; but there was no hope, no stay for either army or multitude."

Eighty pieces of cannon, jammed close together near Vittoria, kept up a desperate fire to the last, and the gunners worked them with frantic energy; while Reille, with heroic resolution, maintained his ground on the Upper Zadorra; but it was all of no avail: the great road to France was lost; an overturned wagon on that to Pampeluna rendered all further passage for carriages impracticable; the British dragoons were thundering in close pursuit, and soon the frantic multitude dispersed on all sides, making their way through fields, across ditches, and over the hills, leaving their whole artillery,

*The French
abandon
Subijana.*

*Capture
of the
baggage.*

ammunition wagons, and the spoil of a kingdom, as a prey to the victors.

Prodigious amount of the spoil taken.

Never before, in modern times, had such a prodigious accumulation of military stores and private wealth fallen to the lot of a victorious army. Jourdan's marshal's baton, Joseph's private carriage, a hundred and fifty-one brass guns, four hundred and fifteen caissons of ammunition, thirteen hundred thousand ball-cartridges, fourteen thousand rounds of ammunition, and forty thousand pounds of gunpowder, constituted the military trophies of a victory where six thousand also were killed and wounded, and a thousand prisoners taken. It at one blow destroyed the warlike efficiency of the French army, swept them like a whirlwind from the Spanish plains, and made Joseph's crown drop from his head. No estimate can be formed of the amount of private plunder which was taken on the field; but it exceeded anything witnessed in modern war, for it was not the produce of the sack of a city or the devastation of a province, but the accumulated plunder of a kingdom during five years, which was now at one fell swoop reft from the spoiler. Independent of private booty, no less than five millions and a half of dollars in the military chest of the army were taken; and of private wealth, the amount was so prodigious that, for miles together, the combatants may be almost said to have marched upon gold and silver without stooping to pick it up. But the regiments which followed, not equally warmed in the fight, were not so

Importance of the victory.

disinterested: enormous spoil fell into the hands of the private soldiers; and the cloud of camp-followers and sutlers who followed in their train swept the ground so completely, that only a hundred thousand dollars of the whole taken was brought into the military chest! But the effects of this prodigious booty speedily appeared in the dissolution of the bonds of discipline in a large part of the army: the frightful national vice of intemperance broke out in dreadful colors, from the unbounded means of indulging it which were thus speedily acquired; and we have the authority of Wellington for the assertion that, three weeks after the battle, above twelve thousand soldiers had disappeared from their colors, though the total loss of the battle was only 5,180, of whom 3,308 were British; and these stragglers were only reclaimed by sedulous efforts and rigorous severity.

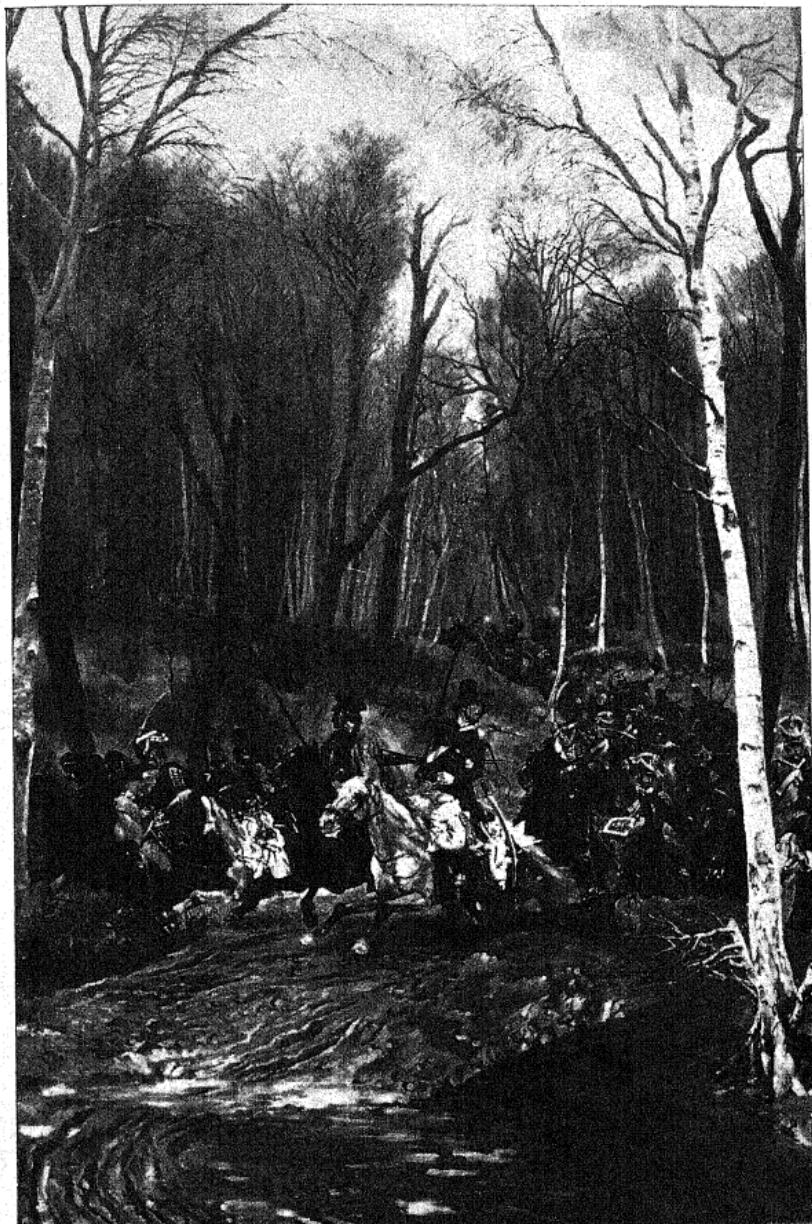
So vast was the number of ladies of pleasure who were among the carriages in the train of the French officers, that it was a common saying afterward in their army, that it was no wonder they were beaten at Vittoria, for they sacrificed their guns to save their mistresses. Rich vestures of all sorts, velvet and silk brocades, gold and silver plate, noble pictures, jewels, laces, cases of claret and champagne, poodles, parrots, monkeys and trinkets, lay scattered about the field in endless confusion, amid weeping mothers, wailing infants, and all the unutterable miseries of warlike overthrow. Joseph himself narrowly escaped being made prisoner: a squadron of dra-

*Demoralization of
the troops.*

*Escape of
Joseph.*

goons pursued the carriage and fired into it, and he had barely time to throw himself out and escape on horseback under shelter of a squadron of horse; his carriage was taken, and in it the beautiful Correggio of Christ in the Garden, which now adorns Apsley House in London. The great convoy of pictures, however, which Joseph was carrying off, after narrowly escaping recapture, reached France in safety, having set out a day previously. The bonds contracted during so many years' occupation of the Peninsula, many of them of the tenderest kind, were all at once snapped asunder by one rude shock; and amid the shouts of joy which arose on all sides for a delivered monarchy were heard the sighs of the vanquished, who mourned the severance of the closest ties by which the heart of man can be bound in this world. Wellington, in a worthy spirit, did all in his power to soften the blow to the many ladies of rank and respectability who fell into his hands. The Countess Gazan, with a number of other wives of the French officers, were next day sent on to Pampeluna with a flag of truce, in their own carriages, which had been rescued from the spoil. But a more important acquisition was obtained in the whole archives of the court of Madrid, including a great mass of Napoleon's original and secret correspondence, an invaluable acquisition to historic truth, to which this narrative has been more than once largely indebted. It is a remarkable fact, that the battle was fought in the close vicinity of the spot where the gallant

*Wellington's
humanity.*

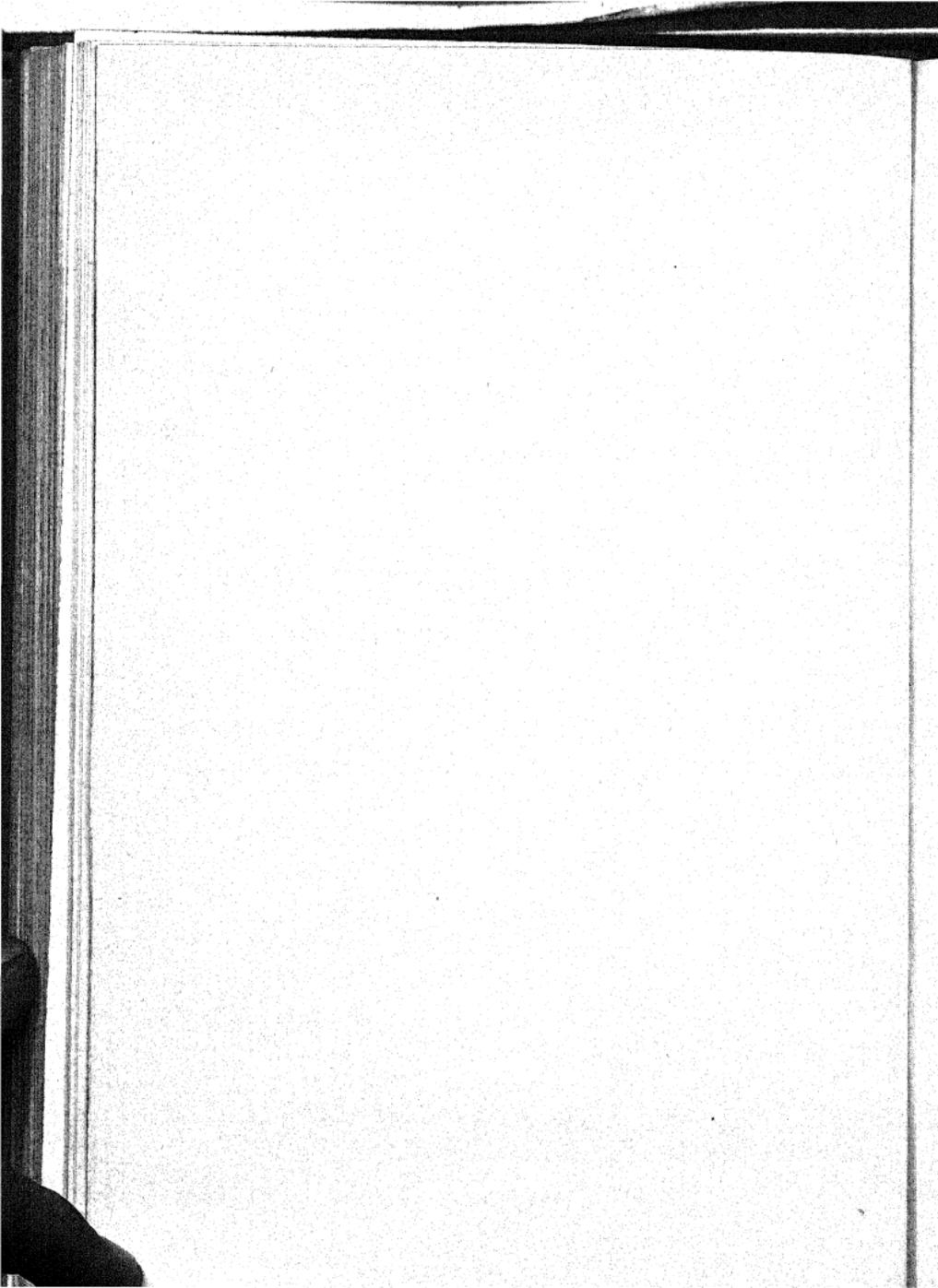


COURTESY METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART

A SKIRMISH BETWEEN THE COSSACKS AND THE IMPERIAL BODYGUARD (Page 137)
FROM THE PAINTING BY DETAILLE

attempt of the Black Prince to establish the rightful, though savage monarch, Peter the Cruel, on the throne of Spain, five hundred years before, had been victorious; and when pursuing the French troops near Arinez, over the hill which still bears the name of the "English Hill" (Inglesmendi), the English soldiers unconsciously trod on the bones of their fathers. Twice had the fate of Spain been decided, by the aid of British blood, in the plain of Vittoria.

*Here the
fate of
Spain twice
decided.*



THE BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE

(A.D. 1813)

JAMES FENIMORE COOPER

THE squadron was still lying at Put-in-Bay on the morning of the 10th of September, when, at daylight, the enemy's ships were discovered at the northwest, from the masthead of the *Lawrence*. *The American squadron at Put-in-Bay.* A signal was immediately made for all the vessels to get under way. The wind was light at southwest, and there was no mode of obtaining the weather-gauge of the enemy (a very important measure with the peculiar armament of the largest of the American vessels) but by beating round some small islands that lay in the way. It being thought there was not sufficient time for this, though the boats were got ahead to tow, a signal was about to be made for the vessels to wear, and to pass to leeward of the islands, with an intention of giving the enemy this great advantage, when the wind shifted to the southeast. By this change the American squadron was enabled to pass the islands in the desired direction, and to gain the wind. When he perceived the American

*Position of
the ships.*

*The com-
manders.*

vessels clearing the land, or about 10 A.M., the enemy hove to, in a line, with his ships' heads to the westward. At this time the two squadrons were about three leagues asunder, the breeze being still at southeast, and sufficient to work with. After standing down, until about a league from the English, where a better view was got of the manner in which the enemy had formed his line, the leading vessels of his own squadron being within hail, Capt. Perry communicated a new order of attack. It had been expected that the *Queen Charlotte*, the second of the English vessels in regard to force, would be at the head of their line, and the *Niagara* had been destined to lead in, and to lie against her, Capt. Perry having reserved for himself a commander's privilege of engaging the principal vessel of the opposing squadron; but, it now appearing that the anticipated arrangement had not been made, the plan was promptly altered. Capt. Barclay had formed his line with the *Chippeway*, Mr. Campbell, armed with one gun on a pivot, in the van; the *Detroit*, his own vessel, next; and the *Hunter*, Lieut. Bignall; *Queen Charlotte*, Capt. Finnis; *Lady Prevost*, Lieutenant-Commander Buchan; and *Little Belt* astern, in the order named. To oppose this line, the *Ariel*, of four long twelves, was stationed in the van, and the *Scorpion*, of one long and one short gun, on circles next her. The *Lawrence*, Capt. Perry, came next; the two schooners just mentioned keeping on her weather bow, having no quarters. The *Caledonia*, Lieut. Turner, was the next

astern, and the *Niagara*, Capt. Elliott, was placed next to the *Caledonia*. These vessels were all up at the time, but the other light craft were more or less distant, each endeavoring to get into her berth. The order of battle for the remaining vessels directed the *Tigress* to fall in astern of the *Niagara*, the *Somers* next, and the *Porcupine* and *Trippie* in the order named.

By this time the wind had got to be very light, but the leading vessels were all in their stations, and the remainder were endeavoring to get in as fast as possible. At this moment, the English vessels presented a very gallant array, and their appearance has been described as beautiful and imposing. Their line was compact, with the heads of the vessels still to the southward and westward; their ensigns were just opening to the air; their vessels were freshly painted, and their canvas was new and perfect. The American line was more straggling. The order of battle required them to form within half a cable's length of each other, but the schooners astern could not close with the vessels ahead, which sailed faster, and had more light canvas, until some considerable time had elapsed.

A few minutes before twelve, the *Detroit* threw a 24-pound shot at the *Lawrence*, then on her weather quarter, distant between one and two miles. Capt. Perry now passed an order, by the trumpet, through the vessels astern, for the line to close to the prescribed order, and soon after the *Scorpion* was hailed and directed to begin

*Gallant
appear-
ance of the
English.*

*The action
begins.*

The
English
attack the
Lawrence.

with her long guns. At this moment, the American vessels in line were edging down upon the English, those in front being necessarily nearer to the enemy than those astern of them, with the exception of the *Ariel* and the *Scorpion*, which two schooners had been ordered to keep to windward of the *Lawrence*. As the *Detroit* had an armament of long guns, Capt. Barclay manifested his judgment in commencing the action in this manner, and in a short time the firing between that ship, the *Lawrence*, and the two schooners at the head of the American line became animated. A few minutes later the vessels astern began to fire, and the action became general, but distant. The *Lawrence*, however, appeared to be the principal aim of the enemy, and before the firing had lasted any material time, the *Detroit*, *Hunter*, and *Queen Charlotte* were directing most of their efforts against her. The American brig endeavored to close, and did succeed in getting within reach of canister, though not without suffering materially, as she fanned down upon the enemy. At this time, the support of the two schooners ahead, which were well commanded and fought, was of the greatest moment to her, for the vessels astern, though in the line, could be of little use in diverting the fire, on account of their positions and the distance. After the firing had lasted some time, the *Niagara* hailed the *Caledonia*, and directed the latter to make room for the brig to pass ahead. Lieut. Turner put his helm up in the most dashing manner, and continued to

near the enemy, until he was closer to his line, perhaps, than the commanding vessel; keeping up as warm a fire as his small armament would allow. The *Niagara* now became the vessel next astern of the *Lawrence*.

The effect of the cannonade was necessarily to deaden the wind, and for nearly two hours there was very little air. During all this time, the weight of the enemy's fire *The wind falls.* continued to be directed at the *Lawrence*; even the

Queen Charlotte, having filled, passed the *Hunter*, and got under the stern of the *Detroit*, where she kept up a destructive cannonade on this devoted vessel. The effect of these united attacks, besides producing a great slaughter on board the *Lawrence*, was nearly to dismantle her, and, at the end of two hours and a half, agreeably to Capt. Perry's report, the British vessels having filled, and the wind beginning to increase, the two squadrons moved slowly ahead, the *Lawrence* necessarily dropping astern and partially out of the combat. At this moment the *Niagara* passed to the westward, a short distance to windward of the *Lawrence*, steering for the head of the enemy's line, and the *Caledonia* followed to leeward.

The vessels astern had not been idle, but, by dint of sweeping and sailing, they had all got within reach of their guns, and had been gradually closing, though not in the prescribed order. The rear of the line would seem to have inclined down toward the enemy, bringing the

The Lawrence suffers heavy losses.

The rear vessels come up.

Trippe, Lieut. Holdup, so near the *Caledonia*, that the latter sent a boat to her for a supply of cartridges.

Capt. Perry, finding that the *Lawrence* had been rendered nearly useless by the injuries she had received, and was dropping out of the combat, got into his boat and pulled after the *Niagara*, on board of which vessel he arrived at about half-past two. Soon after, the colors of the *Lawrence* were hauled down, that vessel being literally a wreck.

After a short consultation between Cpts. Perry and Elliott, the latter volunteered to take the boat of the former, and to proceed and bring the small vessels astern, which were already briskly engaged, into still closer action. This proposal being accepted, Capt. Elliott pulled down the line, passing within hail of all the small vessels astern, directing them to close within half pistol shot of the enemy, and to throw in grape and canister as soon as they could get the desired positions. He then repaired on board the *Somers*, and took charge of that schooner in person.

When the enemy saw the colors of the *Lawrence* come down, he confidently believed that he had gained the day. His men appeared over the bulwarks of the different vessels and gave three cheers. For a few minutes, indeed, there appears to have been a general cessation in the firing, as if by common consent, during which both parties were prepared for a desperate and final effort. The wind had freshened, and the position of the *Niag-*

Captain Perry goes on board the Niagara.

Captain Elliott takes charge of the Somers.

Both parties prepare for a final effort.

ara, which brig was now abeam of the leading English vessel, was commanding, while the gun-vessels astern, in consequence of the increasing breeze, were enabled to close very fast.

At a quarter to three, or when time had been given to the gun-vessels to receive the order mentioned, Capt. Perry showed the signal from the *Niagara* for close action, and immediately bore up, under his foresail, top-sails, and top-gallant sails. As the American vessels hoisted their answering flags, this order was received with three cheers, and it was obeyed with alacrity and spirit. The enemy now attempted to wear round, to get fresh broadsides to bear, in doing which his line got into confusion, and two ships, for a short time, were foul of each other, while the *Lady Prevost* had so far shifted her berth as to be both to the westward and to the leeward of the *Detroit*. At this critical moment, the *Niagara* came steadily down, within half pistol shot of the enemy, standing between the *Chippeway* and *Lady Prevost*, on one side, and the *Detroit*, *Queen Charlotte*, and *Hunter* on the other. In passing, she poured in her broadsides, starboard and larboard, ranged ahead of the ships, luffed athwart their bows, and continued delivering a close and deadly fire. The shrieks from the *Detroit* proved that the tide of battle had turned. At the same moment, the gun-vessels and *Caledonia* were throwing in close discharges of grape and canister astern. A conflict so fearfully close, and so deadly, was necessarily

*Captain
Perry sig-
nals for
close action.*

*Effective
work
of the
Niagara.*

short. In fifteen or twenty minutes after the *Niagara* bore up, a hail was passed among the small vessels to say that the enemy had struck, and an officer of the *Queen Charlotte* appeared on the taffrail of that ship, waving a white handkerchief, bent to a boarding pike.

As soon as the smoke cleared away, the two squadrons were found partly intermingled. The *Niagara* lay to leeward of the *Detroit*, *Queen Charlotte* and *Hunter*, and the *Caledonia*, with one or two of the gun-vessels, was between them and the *Lady Prevost*. On board the *Niagara*, the signal for close action was still abroad, while the small vessels were sternly wearing their answering flags. The *Little Belt* and *Chippeway* were endeavoring to escape to leeward, but they were shortly after brought to by the *Scorpion* and *Trippé*; while the *Lawrence* was lying astern and to windward, with the American colors again flying. The battle had commenced about noon, and it terminated at three, with the exception of a few shots fired at the two vessels that attempted to escape, which were not overtaken until an hour later.

*Duration of
the battle.*

*The condi-
tion of the
Lawrence.*

In this decisive action the two squadrons suffered in nearly an equal degree, so far as their people were concerned; the manner in which the *Lawrence* was cut up being almost without an example in naval warfare. It is understood that when Capt. Perry left her, she had but one gun on her starboard side, or that on which she was engaged, which could be used, and that gallant officer is said to have aided in firing it in person the last time it

was discharged. Of her crew, 22 were killed and 61 were wounded, most of the latter severely. When Capt. Perry left her, taking with him four of his people, there remained on board but 15 sound men. For his conduct in this battle, Capt. Perry received a gold medal from Congress. Capt. Elliott also received a gold medal. Rewards were bestowed on the officers and men generally; and the nation has long considered this action one of its proudest achievements on the water.

The results of the victory were instantaneous and of high importance. The four smallest of the prizes were fitted as transports, and, the *Lawrence* excepted, the American squadron was employed in the same duty. The English had evacuated Detroit, and with it Michigan, and, on the 23d of September, the squadron conveyed a body of 1,200 men to the vicinity of Malden, in Upper Canada, of which place they took possession; and, on the 27th, Capt. Perry ascended to Detroit in the *Ariel*, and reoccupied that town, in conjunction with the army.

*Importance of
the victory.*

*Detroit
reoccupied.*

THE DOWNTIME OF NAPOLEON

(A.D. 1815)

SUTHERLAND MENZIES

THOUGH France was able to march a very large and powerful force into Germany early in the spring, new enemies had arisen in the meantime. The coalition confronted Napoleon with 500,000 soldiers, 1,500 guns, and a reserve, ready to bring into line, of 250,000 more. Two Frenchmen were in its ranks: the Prince Royal of Sweden, Bernadotte, and the victor of Hohenlinden, Moreau, who, at the invitation of the Empress of Russia, had returned from America to aim a deadly blow against his country. Nevertheless, Napoleon was still alert and intrepid. On May 2, 1813, he gained a victory over the Russians and Prussians at Lutzen. On the 20th and 21st, he gained another at Bautzen. The Emperor of Austria then proposed a mediation. An armistice was concluded on the 4th of June, and a congress assembled at Prague to take into consideration terms of peace. The terms proposed were, that the French Empire should be bounded by the Alps, the

*The
German
campaign.*

*Austria
joins the
confed-
erates.*

Rhine, and the Meuse, and that the German States should be restored to their independence. These terms were positively rejected by Bonaparte, and the armistice terminated August 10. Immediately afterward Austria joined the confederates.

The French Emperor had upon the Elbe and under hand only 360,000 men; still, however, presuming too far upon his strength, notwithstanding the inequality of numbers, and that his battalions were mostly filled by conscripts, he dared to threaten at one and the same time Berlin, Breslau, and Prague; which enfeebled him at his centre, at Dresden, where, however, in a great battle near that city on the 26th and 27th of August, Napoleon defeated the allies and compelled them to retreat. But while the great army of Bohemia was in disorderly flight across the mountains whence it had descended, Napoleon learned that Macdonald had just sustained a disaster at Katzbach (26th-29th of August), and that Oudinot had been beaten on the 23d at Gross-Beeren, upon his march to Berlin, and that Bavaria had joined the coalition. These bad tidings prevented him from following up in person the pursuit of the defeated army and overwhelming it. Vandamme, operating in Bohemia, but not being supported, was crushed at Kulm (30th of August), which nullified the victory at Dresden by leaving to the Austrians the bulwark of the Bohemian Mountains, with the facility of issuing therefrom at will in order to turn the right of the French army. The defeat of Macdonald

*Battle of
Dresden.*

*Kulm
nullifies
Dresden.*

had lost Silesia and brought Blücher into Saxony; that of Oudinot and another sustained by Ney at Dennewitz

*Loss of
Silesia.*

(6th of September), in attempting to reopen the road to Berlin, allowed Bernadotte to reach Wittenberg, whence he joined hands with Blücher. Davout, who was already in the middle of Mecklenburg, where he had taken Wismar, was forced to follow the general movement of retreat beyond the Elbe. Thus, from Wittenberg to Tœplitz, the forces of the coalition formed a segment of a circle bristling with 300,000 sabres and bayonets threatening the front of the French, at the same time that its extremities made efforts to join ranks in the rear of Napoleon, with the intention of cutting off his return to France. Thus brought to bay, the French Emperor once again attempted to cut his way through the encircling enemy. On Napoleon concentrating his forces round Leipzig, that city being in the occupation of the French, the allied army was immediately formed into a crescent, having a single opening to the southwest, which they intended to fill up on the arrival of the Swedish army, under Bernadotte, and the Russian and Austrian divisions of Bennigsen and Collaredo. With such dispositions, Bonaparte resolved to stand the hazard of a general engagement, and on the 16th of October was fought what the Germans have called the Battle of the Nations

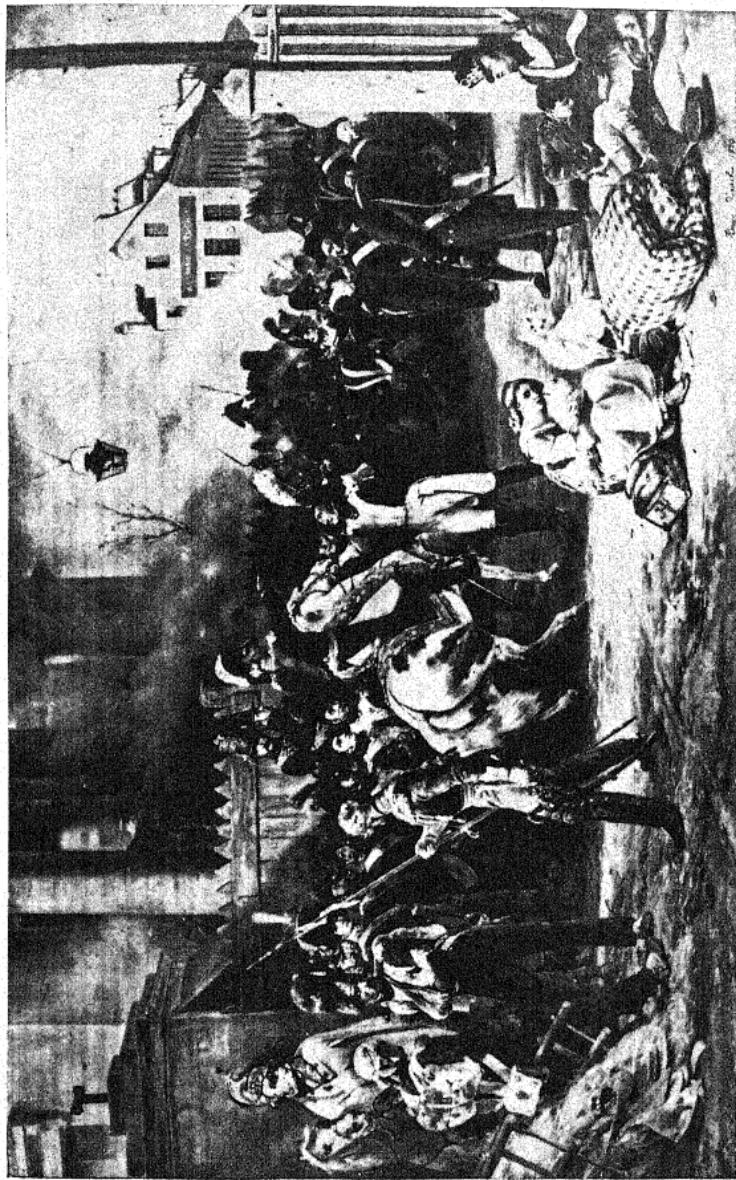
*Napoleon
brought
to bay.*

—a conflict the most murderous of modern history; 190,000 Frenchmen sustaining, during three days, the furious attacks of 133,000 allied enemies. The Saxons

*Battle of
the Nations.*

and Wurtemberg cavalry went over to the enemy upon the field of battle, and fired their cannon, already loaded with French balls, upon the French soldiery. So great was the vibration caused by the discharge of at least 1,200 pieces of artillery, that "the ground shook and reeled as with an earthquake." At the end of the third day's struggle, the reserves of the French artillery were exhausted, there remaining munitions for only 15,000 discharges, that is to say, for two hours' further combat; and the numbers of their enemies were incessantly increasing. As in 1812, the great captain was compelled to fall back without having been conquered, which voluntary retreat became a disaster; so, in 1813 also, that retreat involved a catastrophe only less calamitous than that of Moscow, because a less distance was to be crossed before he could reach a place of safety; and because he had not now to contend with the climate of Russia, or with the hardships of a rigorous season. Napoleon, with the view not to reveal too plainly his intentions, had not caused bridges to be thrown over the Elster and Pleisse; one only, long and narrow, had been constructed at the divided branches of the two rivers. Therefrom arose a great obstacle to the crossing of the troops, delay, and then a fatal error. Soon after Napoleon had crossed, a miner blew up the Elster bridge before the last division of the army, with two marshals and many commanders of corps, had cleared it; so that 25,000 men were, in consequence, cut to pieces, taken prisoners by the allies,

A voluntary retreat.



THE DEFENSE OF PARIS AGAINST THE PRUSSIANS AND AUSTRIANS (Page 170)
FROM THE PAINTING BY VERNET

or drowned in the river. Macdonald swam across it; Lauriston and Reynier were made prisoners; the valiant Poniatowsky, after fighting bravely until the streets of Leipzic were strewn with the bodies of his soldiers, retreated toward the Elster; but, finding the bridge destroyed, he tried to swim his horse across the stream. But the bank being steep on the other side, the horse, in attempting to clear it, fell back on his rider, and both were drowned. Soon after the evacuation by the French, the two Emperors and the King of Prussia entered Leipzic, amid the acclamations of the grateful citizens (19th of October). On the 7th of November, Napoleon crossed the Rhine at Mentz, and two days afterward arrived in Paris.

Another period of war was about to scourge the nations of Europe. Yet the naked sword of vengeance was now visibly suspended over the head of that iron-hearted man, whose insatiable ambition still urged him to further sacrifice to it innumerable victims. Napoleon had scarcely crossed the Rhine when the whole of the Rhenish confederacy abandoned him—an example soon followed by Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. The tide of war, which since the Revolution had overflowed Germany and the surrounding nations, was now rolled back on France itself. At the commencement of 1814, four armies invaded that country from different quarters, and advanced into the heart of France. On the 1st of January, Blücher crossed the Rhine with the Prussian army of the centre,

*Death of
Poniatowsky.*

*Campaign
of 1814—
Invasion
of France.*

that nation bringing into the field 130,000 men; the Austrians and Russians, advancing on the Swiss frontier, 150,000; Bernadotte with 100,000 by way of the Netherlands. At the same time the Austrians had another army in Italy. Murat, King of Naples, also joined the confederates, and Lord Wellington was already upon French territory with 80,000 English, Spaniards, and Portuguese. Finally, the German Empire placed on foot from 150,000 to 160,000 men, in eight divisions. Half a million of men, at least, therefore, were steadily about to hem in the French army, while the forces of the latter could not have amounted to so much as half the strength of its adversaries.

*Napoleon
still
resourceful.*

Opposed by so many and such formidable foes, Napoleon appeared not to lose either his courage or his military genius. He disconcerted the allies by the rapidity of his movements, and gained several brilliant successes; which, though they did not carry with them any lasting advantage, made his enemies still doubtful of the result. On the 29th of January, Blücher was attacked by Napoleon near Brienne so suddenly that he narrowly escaped being taken prisoner. Negotiations for a peace were, however, commenced at Chatillon early in February, 1814; but the insincerity which marked the conduct of the French commissioners prevented them from coming to any conclusion. Napoleon had at length beaten his enemies into the art of conquering, so that while he was manoeuvring in their rear, the Prussians and Austrians

made a rush on Paris, which fell almost without resistance, capitulated (30th of March), and the Senate decreed the imperial crown forfeited, and the Empire fallen. Napoleon abdicated (11th of April), and Louis XVIII. was recalled from exile to ascend the throne of his ancestors. The ex-Emperor had assigned to him the island of Elba as an independent sovereignty, with a pension of two millions of francs. The Duchies of Parma and Placentia were settled on his wife and son.

*Fall of
Paris.*

On the 4th of May, 1814, the white banner of the Bourbons replaced the tricolor of Austerlitz, and, on the 30th of the same month, Talleyrand, the real head of the provisional government, signed with the allies a convention, with the view of affording France the benefits of peace before a regular treaty could be prepared. The allies, by their celebrated Declaration of Frankfort (1st of December, 1813), had announced their wish to see France great, powerful, and happy, because she was one of the corner-stones of the European system; and they agreed, therefore, to evacuate the French territory, according to the ancient limits of it, on January 1, 1792, but with some few additions, partly in the Netherlands, and partly in Savoy. The terms, indeed, were so highly favorable to France that the veteran Blücher, among some other provisions, protested vehemently but ineffectually against the French being allowed to retain the German provinces of Lorraine and Alsace. Thus van-

*The Peace
of Paris.*

ished with the stroke of a pen the fruits of twenty years of bloodshed and conquest.

*Congress
of Vienna.*

In order to settle the general affairs of Europe, it had been determined to assemble a Congress at Vienna, which was formally opened November 1, 1814. While the leading powers were thus endeavoring to restore Europe to its ancient system, an event occurred which threatened to render all their deliberations useless. Napoleon, escaping from Elba with 900 of his veterans, landed near Cannes, in the Gulf of Juan, March 1, 1815. The army everywhere declared in his favor, and almost the whole of the civil authorities readily acknowledging his cause, Napoleon was thus once more seated on his abdicated throne by the most rapid transition known in history (20th of March). The news of this event fell like a thunderbolt among the statesmen assembled at Vienna. The allied powers agreeing unanimously that they would have neither peace nor truce with the violator of treaties, it became evident, therefore, that there must be another appeal to the sword, and both parties made the most gigantic preparations. The three allied sovereigns and the Prince Regent of England launched afresh 800,000 men against France, and placed Bonaparte under the ban of the nations.

*The Hun-
dred Days.*

The usurper had tried to rally round him the liberals, by proposing institutions of a nature favorable to liberty, and similar to those of Louis's constitutional charter. But he clearly saw that his real strength lay in his army; and

it was plain that if victory should restore his authority, all the national and civil institutions would again bend before his will.

About the middle of April, Blücher marched into the Netherlands and established his headquarters at Liège, and early in June he found himself at the head of an army of 117,000 men, with which he occupied the country between the Sambre and the Meuse, while the Duke of Wellington, with 100,000, occupied the whole of Flanders from Brussels to the sea. Napoleon, with his characteristic decision and promptitude, put himself at the head of 150,000 selected troops, and rapidly advanced against the Prussians. In the afternoon of the 16th, Napoleon, with 124,000 men, advanced to attack Blücher's position at Ligny. The Prussians fought with their accustomed bravery, and for five hours maintained their ground; but at about seven o'clock in the evening, a vigorous charge, led by Napoleon in person, threw their infantry into irretrievable disorder. Blücher, at the head of his light cavalry, now attacked the heavy French dragoons; but as he galloped forward, cheering on his men, his horse, struck by a cannon-ball, fell to the ground, crushing the rider beneath its body. The remnant of his army retreated in tolerable order, and left no trophy to the enemy but the field of battle. On the same day, at Quatre Bras, Marshal Ney had a severe struggle with the English, under the Prince of Orange, in which neither party gained complete superiority. In this action

*The cam-
paign of
Four Days.*

*Battle of
Ligny.*

*Marshal
Ney at
Quatre
Bras.*

Battle of Waterloo.

the Duke of Brunswick was killed—the son of that duke who had commanded the Prussian army in the war which broke out at the commencement of the Revolution. Both these actions are memorable as the precursors of the decisive battle which followed on the 18th, at Waterloo, and which terminated forever Napoleon's eventful career. Never, perhaps, was any defeat more bloody or more disastrous than that which he was there destined to sustain. He had issued his orders, and viewed the battle from a convenient distance; and an officer who stood near him affirmed that "his astonishment at the resistance of the British was extreme; his agitation became violent; he took snuff by handfuls at the repulse of each charge." At last, he took the officer by the arm, saying, "The affair is over—we have lost the day—let us be off!" In this heartless manner, and thinking only of himself, Napoleon abandoned an army which was wholly devoted to him. Such was that campaign of four days.

Napoleon abdicates.

The defeated Emperor reached Paris on the 20th of June, and again abdicated in favor of his son (22d). On the 29th he set out for Rochefort, in the hope of escaping to America; but, finding that it was impossible to baffle the vigilance of the English cruisers, he surrendered himself to Captain Maitland, of the *Bellerophon*. When the allies were informed of this event, they decided that he should be sent as a prisoner to the Island of St. Hel-

ena, in the Southern Atlantic. There he died (5th of May, 1821).

The advance of the allied army on Paris was unobstructed, and, altogether, a victorious march. On the 7th of July the city surrendered, and on the 8th, Louis XVIII. re-entered it.

Thus closed finally that succession of revolutions which had distracted Europe for a period of twenty-five years. Peace was again restored nearly on the basis of the treaty which had been contracted the year before, but with some resumption of territory by the allies on the frontiers of the Netherlands, of Germany, and of Savoy, all the provinces of Germany being restored which had belonged to her before the Revolution, and had been torn from her during the wars that followed it. It was also provided that an allied army of 150,000 men should occupy, for the space of three or five years, a line of fortresses from Cambray to Alsace; the possession of which would enable them, in any case of necessity, to march upon Paris without opposition. This army was to be maintained wholly at the expense of France, and France agreed also to pay 700,000,000 of francs, to be divided in different portions among the allied powers, as a partial indemnification for the expenses of this last contest. The definitive treaty was signed at Paris on the 20th of November, 1815.

*Return
of Louis
XVIII.*

*France
loses her
conquests.*

*Treaty
of Paris.*

WESTERN EUROPE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE

(A.D. 1815-1825)

RICHARD LODGE

ENGLAND had done more than any other country to crush the power of Napoleon, but in the eyes of Europe it was Russia that had contributed most to his final overthrow. The story of the French invasion and of the burning of Moscow had fascinated men's minds and given them a profound impression of the invincible strength of the great Eastern Empire. Alexander I. found himself the greatest of living sovereigns and elevated to a kind of European dictatorship. He became impressed with the idea that he had a divine mission to restore peace and order to the world, and his enthusiastic temperament gave way to the impulses of religious superstition. He fell under the influence of the Baroness Krudener, a native of Riga, with whom he spent several hours of each day in prayer and consultation. At her instigation he drew up the plan of the famous Holy Alliance, to which he obtained the assent

*Importance of
Russia.*

*The Holy
Alliance.*

of the rulers of Austria and Prussia on the 26th of September, 1815. The three monarchs solemnly announced their intention of regulating their foreign and domestic policy by the precepts of Christianity, and declared that they would rule justly, promote brotherly love among their subjects, and do all in their power to maintain peace. All princes, except the Pope and the Sultan, were invited to join the alliance, which was to introduce a new era into Europe, and to prevent the recurrence of such convulsions as that which had lately been experienced.

The Revolution's principles adopted.

The motives which were expressed in the preamble were sincere at the moment, but they were the outcome of an unpractical enthusiasm that was entirely out of date. The objects of the Holy Alliance were necessarily modified by circumstances. The Revolution had been apparently suppressed, but its principles survived, and to some extent they had been adopted by the conquerors. The French Empire had fallen before the power of the peoples, who demanded a share in the government as a reward for their dangers and exertions. The old system of personal and irresponsible rule seemed to be an anachronism, and was regarded as such even by the Russian Czar. Alexander I. promised a constitution to the vassal kingdom of Poland which the treaty of Vienna had subjected to him. Frederick William III. had made a similar promise to Prussia. More conspicuous still, the allies had not only permitted, but had almost compelled, Louis

XVIII. to give a charter to France. It seemed likely that before long every country in Europe would receive a constitution on the model of that of England, and that the people would be allowed a voice in the control of taxation and expenditure. But these liberal principles of Alexander and his colleagues were accompanied with important reservations. All these constitutional privileges were to be free grants from the sovereign, any attempt on the part of the people to enforce concessions was regarded as Jacobinism, and any tendency in that direction must be suppressed as endangering the tranquillity of Europe. It was obvious from the first that this presupposed an amount of contentment among the subject populations that did not exist. The arrangements of the treaty of Vienna had been in the highest degree artificial, and they could not be maintained without the employment of force. Before long the Holy Alliance abandoned its high-sounding professions and became simply a league of sovereigns against the people—a kind of European police to put down all liberal movements.

It was in Germany that the force of the reaction first displayed itself. In Austria, the old absolute government had not been shaken by the Revolution, and was continued without opposition. The Viennese were too careless and pleasure-loving to desire liberties which involved labor, and the real danger to Austria, the national aspirations of the Bohemians and Hungarians, had not yet arisen. Francis I. was a cautious and not unpopular sover-

*Jacobinism
to be
suppressed.*

*The
reaction.*

*Prussia's
disappointment.*

*Opposi-
tion to
liberalism.*

eign; and Metternich, an amiable *roué*, thought only of suppressing disorder during his own generation. *Après nous le déluge* was his favorite sentiment. The finances were so culpably mismanaged that the debt continued to increase in time of peace, and the State fell under the control of Jewish money-lenders. In Prussia, the ardent hopes that had been roused by the war of liberation were doomed to bitter disappointment. Frederick William III., well-meaning but weak, submissively followed the lead of Russia, and sought only to secure quiet to his exhausted country. Hardenberg, who remained chief minister till his death, broke off his connection with the reforming party and adopted the royal system. The promised constitution was withheld, and expressions of discontent were carefully suppressed. At the same time the administration was honest and efficient, which helped to prevent any outbreak. But Prussia lost the chance of assuming the leadership of Germany, and the lesser States, who were jealous of her influence, adopted a more liberal attitude as the reaction gained ground in Berlin. In Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Baden, Hanover, Brunswick, and other provinces, the rulers granted constitutions on the model of the French Charter. But care was taken not to allow popular privilege to encroach upon prerogative, and the machinery of the Confederation was employed to suppress the slightest tendency toward liberal opinions. In 1817, a sensation was created by a grand meeting of German students at the Wartburg to celebrate

the anniversary of the Reformation. Real alarm was professed two years later when Kotzebue, the dramatist, was assassinated by a student named Sand. The motive for the act was that Kotzebue was in correspondence with Alexander I., and was supposed to have warned him against the liberal spirit in the German universities. Metternich took advantage of this occurrence to hold a conference of ministers at Carlsbad, where it was decided to take active measures. The press was subjected to a rigorous censorship, the control of the universities was transferred to officials appointed by the government, and a commission was established at Mainz to examine into the supposed conspiracy and to punish the guilty. Metternich wished to utilize the opportunity to suppress the constitutions of the lesser States, but in this he was foiled.

Few princes have ever been placed in a more difficult position than that of Louis XVIII. after his second restoration in 1815. It is true that any open opposition was impossible as long as the allied troops remained in occupation of French soil; but the very fact that he owed his crown to foreign intervention was one of the great causes of his insecurity. Under these circumstances he took the wisest course open to him, and determined to conciliate the people by a punctilious observance of his engagements and by avoiding a revengeful and reactionary policy. But he found himself confronted by vehement opposition from his own family and his immediate followers. A royalist reaction had set in like that of 1660 in

*Assassina-
tion of
Kotzebue.*

*Difficulties
of Louis
XVIII.*

*Massacre of
the Bonapartists.*

England. In the southern provinces the people rose and massacred the Bonapartists. In Paris, the emigrant nobles demanded the restoration of the old *régime* and the punishment of all who were connected with the recent Revolution. Louis XVIII. was determined not to yield to the solicitations of this party, or to adopt a policy which must inevitably lead to a new revolution as soon as the first force of the reaction was spent. But certain concessions had to be made, especially as the majority in the newly elected chambers was vehemently royalist. Talleyrand and Fouché were dismissed from the ministry, and their places taken by the Duc de Richelieu, who had won an honorable reputation in the Russian service as the founder and Governor of Odessa, and M. Decazes. Ney and several others, who had betrayed the monarchy on Napoleon's return, were tried and executed. Three laws were proposed and carried, to put down seditious cries, to authorize extraordinary arrests by the government, and to create special military courts for the summary trial of political crimes without the intervention of a jury. But here the government determined to stop; and when the majority of the Chambers demanded more extreme measures and clamored against the granting of an amnesty to traitors, Louis dissolved them. On the 5th of September, 1816, he issued an edict on his own authority, which made important changes in the system of representation. The number of deputies was reduced from 394 to 260, and the franchise, as settled by the Charter, was

*Execution
of Ney.*

secured to all who paid 300 francs in direct taxes. The measure was a *coup d'état* in the liberal interest, and it was for the moment completely successful. The moderate party was in a majority in the new Chamber of Deputies, and the danger from the royalists was averted. But the change involved serious dangers in the future. A fifth of the Chamber had to be renewed every year, and it was almost certain that the new elections would be more and more liberal in their character.

But at first this danger was overlooked, the ministry and the Legislature were in accord with each other, and a good opportunity seemed to present itself for freeing France from the expensive humiliation of its foreign garrison. In 1817, a part of the allied troops was recalled and the moderation of Alexander I., who wished France to be strong enough to balance the other western powers, obtained a diminution of the indemnity which was to be paid before the occupation altogether ceased. In September, 1818, a great Congress of princes and ministers met at Aix-la-Chapelle. Here it was agreed that the occupation of French territory should entirely cease by the 30th of November, five years before the stipulated date. Next to the Czar, the chief advocate of this generous act was the Duke of Wellington, who had won universal respect as commander of the allied army. At the same time France was admitted to a share with the other great powers in regulating the affairs of Europe. By a treaty which was drawn up in November, the five powers, the

A coup d'état.

Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle.

“pentarchy,” as they were called, pledged themselves to act in concord for the maintenance of European peace. In case of any disturbance, measures were to be concerted at a congress, either of the sovereigns themselves or of their chief ministers.

*Richelieu's
troubles.*

*Liberal
measures.*

This signal diplomatic triumph seemed to give additional security to the ministry of Richelieu. But he was troubled by the increasing liberal majority in the Chamber of Deputies, and especially by the elections of 1818, at which Lafayette, Manuel, and Benjamin Constant were returned. He attributed these disasters to the edict of September, 1818, which gave a majority of votes to the lower middle class; and he became convinced of the necessity of again changing the electoral law. As the King refused to recognize this necessity, Richelieu resigned in December, and Decazes became head of a purely liberal ministry. A number of popular measures followed. The censorship was abolished, and trial by jury was established for cases concerning the press. To prevent opposition from the upper chamber, the King consented to the creation of sixty new peers, nearly all of whom were men who had occupied important positions under the Empire. The royalists were in despair, and the Count of Artois maintained that his brother must have lost his senses. But Louis XVIII. soon discovered that even these enormous concessions had failed to conciliate the extreme liberals either to the crown or to the ministry. One of the chief causes of complaint was an agree-

ment that had been made with the Pope, by which Napoleon's concordat was annulled, and the old concordat between Francis I. and Leo X. (1516) was restored. Decazes found himself attacked on both sides, and at last began to meditate some modification of the electoral edict of 1816. But while the matter was being discussed, an event happened which completely revolutionized French politics. On the 13th of February, 1820, the Duke of Berry, second son of the Count of Artois, was assassinated by a man named Louvel. His death was the more important because his elder brother, the Duke of Angoulême, was childless, and it was to the Duke of Berry that men looked for a continuation of the royal line. He had been married in 1816 to Caroline Mary, granddaughter of the King of Naples, who was already the mother of a daughter, and who was pregnant at the time of her husband's murder. An irresistible royalist reaction now set in, Decazes had to resign, and Richelieu once more undertook the direction of affairs, with the support of the Right instead of the Left in the chambers. The censorship of the press was re-established and a new electoral law was introduced, which placed the election of half the deputies in the hands of the wealthy classes. The feeling in favor of the crown was increased by two events: the birth of a son, Henry, Duke of Bordeaux, to the Duchess of Berry, in September, 1820, and the death of the late Emperor at St. Helena on the 5th of May, 1821. In December, 1821, Richelieu, who found himself

*Assassination
of
the Duke
of Berry.*

*Royalist
reaction.*

*Death of
Napoleon.*

more and more out of harmony with the Ultras, resigned office for the second time, and was succeeded by Villèle, the recognized leader of the royalist party. From this time, Louis XVIII., whose energy declined with advancing years, and who fell under the influence of Madame du Cayla, practically resigned his authority to the Count of Artois. Another change in the constitution, which abolished the annual election of a fifth of the deputies, and authorized the Chamber to sit for seven years, secured the victory of the reactionary party.

Nothing illustrates more clearly the wisdom of Louis XVIII. than a comparison of the policy pursued by another restored Bourbon, Ferdinand VII. of Spain. When Ferdinand was released by Napoleon at the beginning of 1814, Spain was still governed by the Cortes which had been created under the constitution of 1812. At first the King undertook to maintain this form of government, but, on arriving on Spanish soil, he discovered that the liberal administration was by no means popular among the peasants and was detested by the priests. Ferdinand was a worthless and incapable prince, who had learned nothing in his four years' captivity except an aptitude for lying and intrigue, and who was subject to two guiding passions, sensuality and superstition. From Valencia he issued an edict dissolving the Cortes and promising a new constitution in place of that of 1812. So strong was the reaction in favor of the monarchy, that this measure was hailed with applause, and

*Policy of
Ferdinand
VII. of
Spain.*

*His
character.*

the King entered Madrid in triumph. No sooner was he established on the throne than he threw his promises to the wind and restored the old absolutism with all its abuses. The nobles recovered their privileges and their exemption from taxes, the monasteries were restored, the Inquisition resumed its activity, and the Jesuits returned to Spain. All liberals and all adherents of Joseph Bonaparte were ruthlessly persecuted. The government was conducted by a *camarilla* of worthless courtiers and priests, who encouraged the King to fresh acts of reactionary violence. For six years this royalist reign of terror was continued, and the suppression of isolated revolts gave occasion for new cruelties. The finances of the country were in the most wretched condition, owing to the loss of the American colonies, which had taken advantage of Napoleon's conquest of Spain to establish their independence. Instead of trying to restore prosperity by maintaining peace, Ferdinand squandered large sums upon futile expeditions to recover the colonies. One of his expedients for raising money was the sale of Florida to the United States in 1819. Discontent in Spain found expression in numerous secret societies, for which the model was found in Italy. It was among the soldiers, neglected and ill-paid, that these societies found their most numerous and active adherents. At last, in 1820, the standard of revolt was raised at Cadiz by Riego and Quiroga, two officers of an expedition that had been prepared for South America. Vigorous action at the

*Persecution
of the
liberals.*

*Sale of
Florida to
the United
States.*

*Riego's
rebellion.*

outset might have crushed the rising, but Ferdinand and his advisers were as incapable as they were tyrannical, and before long the movement had spread over the whole country. In March, the King gave way and accepted the constitution of 1812. The royalists, the *serviles*, as they were called, were dismissed from office and their places taken by liberals. The Cortes met in July, and at once proceeded to dissolve the monasteries and the Inquisition, to confiscate the clerical tithes, to abolish entails, and to secure freedom for the press and for popular meetings. At first, the moderate party, headed by Martinez de la Rosa, endeavored to suppress disorder and to establish a durable constitutional government. But this the King was determined to prevent, and the moderates were defeated by a factious combination of royalists and radicals. Risings of the loyal and bigoted peasants in the provinces were suppressed, and contributed to the victory of the extreme party. In 1822, the election of Riego as president of the Cortes seemed to mark the final triumph of the Revolution in Spain.

*Revolution
in Portugal.*

The rising in Spain gave the signal for similar movements in other countries. Portugal, as being the nearest, was the first to feel the impulse. The Portuguese had many grievances to complain of. On the first invasion of Marshal Junot the royal family had fled to Brazil. When, in 1816, the death of Maria gave the crown to the former Regent, John VI., he continued to reside in Rio Janeiro as ruler of the United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and

the Algarves. The government of Portugal was intrusted to a Council of Regency at Lisbon. But the real power was in the hands of Lord Beresford, who remained commander-in-chief of the army after the conclusion of the war. *Beresford's power.*

The Portuguese were naturally indignant that their country should be ruled by a foreigner, and that it should be treated as an appendage of one of its own colonies. In August, 1820, the events in Spain encouraged a rising, for which a convenient opportunity was given by the absence of Beresford at Rio. A revolutionary junta was established at Oporto and speedily obtained adherents in the other towns. The Council of Regency was compelled to abdicate, and a constitution was introduced on the model of that of Spain. Lord Beresford was refused admittance to Lisbon and had to sail to England, but the government refused to interfere in the internal affairs of Portugal. At the same time the revolutionary movement spread to Brazil, where it found a supporter in the King's eldest son, Dom Pedro. The result was that John VI. had to resign the administration to his son, and with the rest of his family sailed to Lisbon, where he arrived on the 3d of July, 1821. Here he was compelled to accept the constitution which had been established in his absence. These events were followed by the formal separation of Brazil from Portugal. The Cortes at Lisbon was determined to reduce the powerful colony to its former dependence, and orders were sent to Dom Pedro to return to Portugal. The Prince, convinced that such a step

*Brazil
separated
from
Portugal.*

Brazil becomes an Empire.

would result in the loss of Brazil to the House of Braganza, refused obedience, and was supported by his subjects. In 1822, he was proclaimed Emperor of Brazil and adopted a constitution.

Austria in Italy.

In Italy, the House of Hapsburg had recovered even more than its old predominance by the treaty of Vienna. The instinct of self-preservation impelled Austria to do all in its power to crush the tendencies toward self-rule or national unity which had been aroused during the Napoleonic period. In the provinces of Lombardy and Venice a carefully organized system of espionage and police, with an active censorship of the press, reduced the people to dumb, if unsatisfied, submission. But for absolute security it was necessary that the other States of the Peninsula should pursue the same system, so that there should be no ground for jealous comparisons. This object was also obtained. The rulers of Parma and Modena obeyed the slightest hint from Vienna, and anxiously copied the Austrian administration in every detail. In Rome, Pius VII., and still more his successor, Leo XII., strove successfully to restore the old traditions of priestly rule. In Tuscany, Ferdinand III. allowed a certain freedom of thought and expression; and Florence became a refuge for men whose utterances were checked elsewhere. But the Grand Duke was too much of a Hapsburg to extend this liberty to politics; all popular institutions were suppressed, the police were as active as in Milan, and the people were encouraged to forget pub-

Florence a refuge for liberalism.

lic affairs in a life of indolent pleasure. In Naples, the aged Ferdinand I. owed his restoration to Austria, and was thus compelled, even if he had not wished it himself, to suppress all liberal tendencies. One of his first acts on recovering his independence was to revoke the constitution which he had given to Sicily while he was under the guidance of the English admiral, Lord Bentinck. Any energy that was wanting to the King himself was amply supplied by his wife, Caroline, who constantly urged her husband to fresh precautions against revolution. But the province in which the reaction was most thoroughly carried out was Piedmont. During the *Reaction in Piedmont.* French occupation, the King, Victor Emmanuel, had lived quietly in the island of Sardinia, completely untouched by all that was passing on the Continent. He returned to Turin with all the prejudices and prepossessions of a system that was thoroughly out of date. Regardless of the confusion and absurdity that was involved in such an act, he issued an edict which abolished all laws and regulations introduced by the French, and restored the government as it had existed in 1770. Even the new roads were abandoned, and it was almost decided to destroy the bridge which Napoleon had built across the Po. As compared with the system pursued at Turin, the Austrian government of Milan appeared liberal and far-seeing. But liberal opinions survived in Piedmont and were nourished by the nearness of France. Among their adherents was a member of the royal house,

*Return of
Victor
Emmanuel.*

Dynastic intrigues.

Charles Albert, Prince of Carignano. Neither Victor Emmanuel, nor his brother, Charles Felix, had a son, so Charles Albert was the legitimate heir to the throne. But so strong was the reaction, that the idea was entertained of disinheriting him, and securing the succession to the Archduke Francis IV. of Modena, who had married a daughter of Victor Emmanuel, and whose reactionary principles were above suspicion.

The Carbonari.

Although the government of the Italian provinces corresponded so exactly to the wishes of Austria, there was still some ground for uneasiness in the numerous secret societies which covered the whole country. The most important and active of these was the famous Carbonari, which eagerly watched for an opportunity of overthrowing foreign despotism and effecting the simultaneous union and freedom of Italy. The first opening for active measures was given by the effect of the Spanish revolution in Naples, always closely connected with Spain by dynastic ties. Here, as in Spain, the movement originated with the army. The garrison of Nola raised the first cry for the Spanish constitution, other troops followed the example, and General Pepé, a popular officer, assumed the lead of the rebellion. No semblance of resistance was made by Ferdinand I., who at once undertook to form a liberal ministry and to take the oath to the constitution, of the provisions of which both he and the rebels were completely ignorant. In four days the revolution was accomplished without disturbance, and

The revolution succeeds.

the King even went out of his way to express his gratitude to General Pepé and his determination to uphold the new system.

Very different was the course of events in Sicily, where the people hated the Neapolitans and wished to break off the connection between the two kingdoms. The news reached Palermo on the festival of St. Rosalia (July 14, 1820), the patron saint of the city. A wild tumult followed, in which a number of lives were lost, and the Governor and other officials escaped with difficulty. Envoys were sent to Naples to demand legislative independence and a free constitution. But the Neapolitans were indignant at the excesses that had disgraced the movement in Sicily, and were eager to maintain their hold over the island. An army was sent under Florestan Pepé, brother of the popular hero, to enforce obedience; and Palermo, after an obstinate resistance, was compelled to yield.

The rapid spread of revolution in Europe inspired serious misgivings among the great powers, and impelled the Holy Alliance to show its true colors. Austria was especially alarmed by the movement in Naples, which threatened to overthrow its power in Italy; and Metternich convoked a congress at Troppau, in Upper Silesia (October, 1820), at which Austria, Russia, Prussia, France and England were represented. Neapolitan affairs were the chief subject of discussion, and it was soon evident that Austria, Russia, and Prussia were agreed as

*Events in
Sicily.*

*Palermo
submits.*

*Austria
reduces
Naples
and Sicily.*

*Duplicity
of Francis.*

*Ferdinand
takes
revenge.*

to the necessity of armed intervention. England made a formal protest against such high-handed treatment of a peaceful country; but as the protest was not supported by France, and England was not prepared to go to war for Naples, it was disregarded. The three allied powers decided to transfer the congress to Laybach and to invite Ferdinand I. to attend in person. The news of this decision made a profound impression in Naples, but the King was allowed to depart after he had made a solemn promise to adhere to the constitution, and to defend it before the other sovereigns. During his absence the administration was intrusted to his son Francis, who proved to be as profound a master of deceit as his father. The question of principle having been settled at Troppau, there was no need for long discussions at Laybach. Ferdinand I. had no idea of observing his promises, and it was decided that an Austrian army should march into Naples to restore his authority. On the 5th of February 6,000 Austrian troops started from Lombardy under General Frimont. The Neapolitans determined to resist; but their leaders were divided, the inhabitants of the country were not devoted to the cause, and all patriotic efforts were impeded by the treacherous intrigues of the regent. Pepé was defeated in an engagement at Rieti and his troops deserted him. Without further opposition the Austrians entered Naples on the 24th of March. A small detachment was sufficient to reduce Sicily. Ferdinand I. took a terrible revenge upon his opponents; and those

who were fortunate enough to escape the scaffold had to seek safety in exile.

It was fortunate for Austria that no effective resistance was made by the Neapolitans, for directly after the departure of the troops from Lombardy a revolution broke out in Piedmont. It was effected by a combination of the liberals, who wished to establish constitutional government, with the officers of the army, who were anxious to free Piedmont from Austrian tutelage. The aged King, Victor Emmanuel, was unable to resist a movement that appeared unanimous, and sought to evade the difficulty by abdicating in favor of his brother, Charles Felix (12th of March). As the latter was absent in Modena, the administration was intrusted to Charles Albert of Carignano. His first act was to proclaim the Spanish constitution, and to appoint a new ministry, in which Santa Rosa, the leader of the military party, had a place. But at the same time he sent to Modena to justify these measures on the plea of necessity, and to profess his obedience to Charles Felix. The new King replied by condemning all that had been done, and expressed his intention of appealing for support to the Holy Alliance. On receipt of this answer, Charles Albert felt that his position was untenable, and fled to Novara, where he formally resigned his authority. At the same time Austrian troops crossed the Ticino and speedily suppressed the revolt. As Victor Emmanuel persisted in abdicating, Charles Felix ascended the throne and restored the old system, but

Piedmont revolts.

Victor Emmanuel abdicates.

without any of the cruelties that disgraced the reaction in Naples.

Meanwhile the disorders in Spain continued, and a rebellion broke out in Greece against the Turks. In October, 1822, another European congress met at Verona to consider these matters. The French government, which was now wholly in the hands of the royalists, maintained that any intervention in Spain must be undertaken by France, just as the intervention in Naples had been intrusted to Austria. A French army had been already drawn up on the frontiers, on the pretext that it was a necessary precaution against the yellow fever, which had broken out with terrible violence in Spain. Austria, Russia, and Prussia were inclined to distrust France, and favored the plan of a combined invasion by the allied forces of Europe. On the other hand, Canning, who had become foreign minister on the death of Castlereagh, sent the Duke of Wellington to Verona with instructions to protest against any armed intervention whatever. Ultimately the four powers determined to demand from the Spanish government an alteration of the constitution and greater liberty for the King. It was understood that in case of an unsatisfactory answer being received, France would take active measures with the authority of the other three States. As the Spanish ministers rejected the demand of the powers, all the ambassadors except the English envoy left Madrid, and the French army, 100,000 strong, entered Spain under the Duke of An-

*Congress
of Verona.*

*Wellington's
instructions.*

gouême (April, 1823). No effective resistance was made, and Madrid was entered on the 23d of May. But the Cortes had carried the King to Seville, and on the approach of the French they retreated to Cadiz. The last resistance was overcome by a bombardment of the city, and on the 1st of October Ferdinand VII. was released. His first act was to revoke everything that had been done since the beginning of 1820. The Inquisition was not restored, but the secular tribunals took a terrible vengeance on the revolutionary leaders. The Duke of An-gouême protested against these cruelties, but in vain. Even the fear of revolt, the last check upon despotism, was removed by the presence of the French troops, which remained in Spain till 1827. As a protest against this occupation, which he had been unable to prevent, Canning acknowledged the independence of the Spanish colonies.

The French enter Madrid.

French occupation of Spain.

Once more events in Portugal followed the example of those in Spain. For some time the reactionary party had been gaining in strength, and the news of French intervention in the neighboring country gave it an easy triumph. The Cortes, deserted both by the people and the army, dissolved itself, and absolute government was restored. John VI., a careless and easy-tempered ruler, wished to issue a general amnesty and to grant a new constitution. But his wife, a sister of Ferdinand VII., and her second son, Dom Miguel, a monster of bigotry and cruelty, were determined to punish the conquered party.

Murder of Loulé.

The King found himself a prisoner in his own palace, his favorite minister, Loulé, was murdered, and the Queen aimed at her husband's deposition and the elevation of Miguel to the throne. At last John VI. escaped to an English ship in the Tagus (May 9, 1824), and the people rallied to his cause. Miguel obtained his father's forgiveness, but retired to Vienna, whence he returned after John's death to bring further troubles upon his country.

Canning's opposition succeeds.

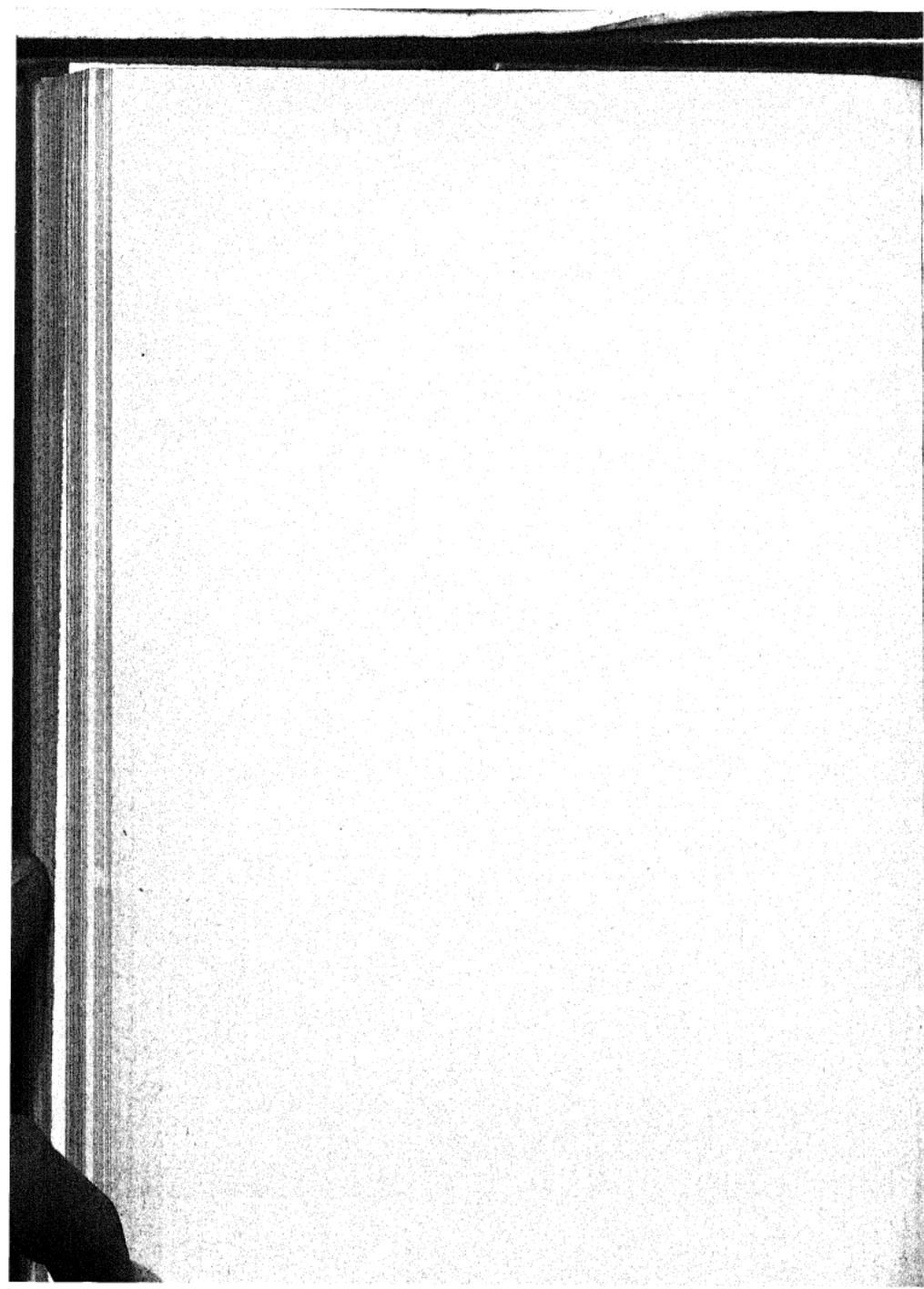
For the time, the Holy Alliance had triumphed, and the revolutionary movement in western Europe seemed to be suppressed. But the resolute attitude which Canning had assumed at the Congress of Verona and in subsequent negotiations had broken up the pentarchy, and deprived the decisions of the other powers of the unity which was necessary for permanence. The death of Alexander I., in 1825, gave a final blow to a league which must either have crushed the growth of liberty in Europe, or have led to another continental war, not less general and destructive than that which had been aroused by the French Revolution.

Battle of New Orleans.

[In 1815, the Ionian Islands are formed into an independent Republic under British protection. General Jackson defeats the English at New Orleans. In 1816, La Plata separates from the Argentine Republic. The English Parliament buys the Elgin marbles. Lord Exmouth bombards Algiers, whose Dey is forced to abolish Chris-

tian slavery. The East India Company conquers Nepaul. In 1819, the interference of soldiers in a reform meeting at Manchester causes the Peterloo massacre. Ali Pacha, of Janina, conquers the last of the Venetian possessions and reaches the height of his power. Spain gives up Florida to the United States. The Republic of Colombia is formed. In 1820, Thistlewood conspires unsuccessfully to kill the British Cabinet. George IV. attempts to divorce his wife Caroline, but abandons the project. Mehemet Ali conquers the Sudan and Kordofan.]

*The
United
States
gains
Florida.*



WAR OF GREEK INDEPENDENCE

(A.D. 1821-1832)

W. ALISON PHILLIPS

THE attitude of European public opinion toward the Greek revolt at the beginning of the century is in strange contrast with the apathy of a generation which, at its close, is weary of the unsolved riddle of the Eastern Question, and jaded with full newspaper reports of countless massacres. The Western world still lay under the glamour of Byron's genius, and even the Levantine Greeks, seen through the rosy mist of romanticism, assumed Homeric proportions. Their meannesses were overlooked, their cruelty condoned or glossed over with a classical allusion. The sympathy of the churches went out to an uprising of persecuted Christians; and, from the political point of view, most important of all, liberal sentiment, gagged and bursting to express itself, welcomed the opportunity given "beyond the pale of civilization" by a people struggling to be free.

It is as easy to criticise the uncritical attitude of the Philhellenes as it is to criticise that of the Emperor

*Influence
of Phil-
hellenic
sentiment
on the
Greek war.*

*Foreign
aid.*

Francis on the other side when he said that the Greek revolt was "the work of agitators who do not believe in God." The fact remains that modern Greece owes her existence to a sentiment scarce to be understood by a generation which has begun to despise a classical education. Unaided, the Greeks must have succumbed. But soon, from all parts of Europe, money and volunteers were pouring into Greece. Old officers of Napoleon, like Colonel Fabvier, English officers, like Colonel Gordon and Sir Richard Church, brought to the insurgents the help of their swords and of their rich experience. Byron himself came, prepared to give his life, as he had given his name, to the cause which he had made his own, and in which, in spite of grievous disillusionment, he nobly persevered to the end. Long before the Cabinets had made up their minds to essay the first tentative pluckings at the strands of the tangled knot, the public opinion of Europe had drawn the sword with which it was destined to be cut; and, long before the battle of Navarino, the complaint of the Reis-Effendi was not ill-founded that Turkey was fighting not Greece, but all Europe.

The result was due, in fact, largely to the infatuated policy of the Porte itself. The news of the massacres perpetrated by the Greeks produced at Constantinople, as was natural, a wild cry for retaliation. Sultan Mahmoud, enlightened though he occasionally proved, was carried away by a paroxysm of rage. Strenuous exertions

were made to fit out a force to crush the rising at its centre. Meanwhile, as this would take time, the Sultan determined by a signal example to strike terror into the rebels. According to the law of the Ottoman Empire, the Orthodox Patriarch was responsible for the good behavior of his flock. On the morning of Easter Eve, then, April 22, a decree was issued deposing the Patriarch, and ordering the bishops to proceed at once to the election of a new head of the Church. The Synod, which met immediately after the morning mass, had no choice but to obey; and while the new Patriarch was receiving the investiture of his office, the venerable Gregorios, still in his sacred robes, was led out and hanged before the gates of his own palace. The body, after hanging for a day or two, was cut down, dragged by a Jewish rabble through the streets, and finally cast into the Bosphorus.

The execution of the Patriarch was "worse than a crime; it was a mistake." It was intended and taken as a gage of defiance flung down to all Christendom. So awful a crime as the murder of the Orthodox Patriarch could not, indeed, pass unnoticed by Russia; and the Russian ambassador and his staff were at once withdrawn from Constantinople.

A year had passed since the death of Gregorios when the long series of horrors culminated in the awful massacre of Chios (April, 1822), by which the whole of the most peaceful and the most prosperous community in the Archipelago was exterminated. The

*Infatuated
policy of
the Porte.*

*The ex-
ecution of
the Greek
Patriarch.*

*Russia
breaks off
diplomatic
relations.*

*Massacre
of Chios.*

wholesale character of the crime produced a profound effect on European public opinion, now thoroughly aroused; and when, on the night of June 18, Kanaris steered a fire-ship into the midst of the Turkish fleet, and burned the flagship of the Capudan-Pasha with three thousand souls on board, all Christendom hailed the exploit as a glorious victory. Public opinion had, however, at that time, even in England, only an indirect influence on the governments. Foreign policy especially was still the affair of the Cabinets; and the turning-point in the fortunes of the Greeks was, not so much the awakening of the conscience of Europe, as the change produced in English policy by the accession to office of George Canning.

*Attitude of
Metternich.*

Metternich, who early in 1825 had made a flying visit to Paris and won over Charles X. to his views, declared through the Austrian plenipotentiary that the Court of Vienna would recognize only one of two alternatives—the complete subjection, or the complete independence of Greece. With the idea of a group of vassal states, he flatly refused to have anything to do; and Russia was equally averse from the setting up of a strong Greek state which might endanger her own influence. The result of the Conference was, then, no more than that, on March 13, it was resolved to offer a joint note to the Porte inviting it to accept the mediation of the powers in the settlement of the Greek Question. Needless to say, in the absence of any threat of coercion, this pro-

posal was indignantly rejected by the Ottoman Government.

For a while the silence between the Cabinets of London and St. Petersburg on the Eastern Question remained unbroken, each side awaiting the hour when a suspicious curiosity should lead the other to make the first advances. Canning was the earliest to succumb. The affairs of the East, indeed, had reached a crisis which made it impossible for the powers any longer to look on with indifference. In the course of 1824, Sultan Mahmoud, realizing the impossibility of putting down the insurrection by his own unaided forces, had bent his pride to ask help of his vassal, Mehemet Ali of Egypt. In December, 1824, Ibrahim, to whom Mehemet Ali had intrusted the supreme command of the expedition, established his base in Crete, within striking distance of the Greek mainland. On February 24, 1825, he landed with an army of four thousand regular infantry and five hundred cavalry at Modon, in the extreme south of the Morea.

From this moment the whole aspect of the war was altered. The Greeks, who could cope well enough with the irregular Ottoman levies, were utterly unable to hold their own against Ibrahim's disciplined fellahs. Before the year was out, in spite of isolated acts of heroism, the whole of the Peloponnese, save one or two strong places, was at the mercy of the invader, who was credited with the intention of deporting the Greek population

*The Sultan
calls on
Egypt for
help.*

*Ibrahim in
the Morea,
February,
1825.*

*England
renews
negotia-
tions with
Russia.*

*Treaty of
London,
July 6, 1827.*

*Greek Gov-
ernment
gladly ac-
cepts in-
tervention.*

and repeopling the country with Mussulman negroes and Arabs. Only the heroic defenders of the mud ramparts of Missolonghi, hard pressed by the Turks under Reshid Pasha, stood between the Greek race and destruction. And Ibrahim, as soon as his work in the Morea was complete, would march northward, and finish with his seasoned troops what Reshid had failed to achieve.

It was under these circumstances that Stratford Canning, the newly-appointed ambassador at St. Petersburg, was authorized, in 1825, to propose to the Tsar a joint intervention of the powers, still, however, with the old stipulation that Turkey should not be coerced.

On July 6, 1827, the Protocol of St. Petersburg was converted into the Treaty of London, Austria and Prussia refusing to sign as a protest against the threat of force. By this instrument the three signatory powers bound themselves to secure the autonomy of Greece, under the suzerainty of the Sultan, but without breaking off friendly relations with the Porte.

The Treaty of London had been communicated to the French and English admirals at Smyrna on August 11. They were empowered to part the combatants by peaceful means if possible, by force if necessary. Admiral Codrington at once sailed for Nauplia, where the armistice was gladly accepted by the Greek Government. By the Turks, however, it was scornfully rejected; a naval expedition was fitted out to reduce the island strongholds of Hydra and Spezzia; while, at the same

time, an Egyptian armada of ninety-two ships set sail from Alexandria, and before Codrington could intercept it succeeded in joining the Ottoman fleet in the Bay of Navarino (September 7). The fleets of all three powers were now assembled; and the admirals held a council of war, at which it was decided to present another ultimatum to Ibrahim, demanding fresh securities, the return home of the Egyptian and Ottoman fleets, the cessation of hostilities on land, and the evacuation of the Morea. To this communication an evasive answer was returned; and Codrington, as senior admiral in command, decided to make a demonstration by entering the Bay of Navarino. A battle was not intended; but all precautions were taken in the event of one becoming inevitable. On the morning of October 20, the allied fleets, without interference from the Turkish forts, sailed into the bay and took up positions opposite that of the Mussulmans. The refusal of the Turks to move some fire-ships which threatened the allied line led to an altercation, in which shots were exchanged, and the battle soon became general. Before nightfall Ibrahim's armada was completely destroyed.

*Battle of
Navarino,
October 20,
1827.*

The effect of the battle of Navarino was immense. *Effects of
the victory.* Ibrahim, indeed, in spite of the destruction of his fleet, still defiantly held out. But "for Europe," in the words of Metternich, "the event of October 20 began a new era." Nicholas, who regarded the victory of Navarino as a proof of the unity of the three powers, proposed

to follow up the blow by marching an army into the Danubian Principalities, and suggested that the maritime powers should force the Dardanelles and compel the Sultan to agree to the terms of the Treaty of London.

*Opening of
the Russo-
Turkish
war.*

*Russia's
hard task.*

*Greece
made an
autono-
mous state.*

The Russian army crossed the Pruth on May 6, 1828, the first stage in what all Europe believed would be a "military promenade" to Constantinople. But, once more, the "Sick Man" showed unexpected signs of vitality. Once more the incompetence of the Ottoman commanders was outbalanced by the bravery of their troops, and the intention of the Tsar to push the war to a speedy conclusion was far from being realized. It cost the Russians two hardly-fought campaigns before General Diebitsch was able to dictate terms to the Ottoman Government at Adrianople.

On November 16, 1828, a protocol of the London Conference placed the Morea, with the neighboring islands and the Cyclades, under the guarantee of the powers; and this agreement was followed on March 22, 1829, by a further protocol, which, by extending the frontier to the line of Arta-Volo, included in Hellas a large part of continental Greece—which had meanwhile been cleared of the Turks by the expedition of Sir Richard Church to Acarnania—and also the important island of Eubœa. According to this arrangement, Greece was still to be a tributary state, but autonomous, and governed by a hereditary prince chosen by the powers.

Even this protocol, which was very far from satisfy-

ing the Greeks, had only been signed by Aberdeen with reluctance, and under conditions which, but for the pressure of events, would have made it abortive. But while the powers were still hesitating and talking, the war in the Balkan peninsula, so full of surprises, came to a surprising end; and, on September 14, was signed the Peace of Adrianople, which marked another halting-place in the victorious advance of Russia in the East.

This result was itself due rather to the audacious genius of the Russian commander than to the fortunes of the war. Diebitsch, with an army of some thirteen thousand men, had pressed on over the Balkans, leaving in his rear the unconquered armies of the Grand Vizier and the Pasha of Skutari. His strategy, though rash, was successful. With his rear to the Black Sea, of which Russia held the command, and his communications assured; with the range of the Balkans between himself and the Turks at Shumla, who were powerless to hurt him; and with nothing in front of him save the teeming but unwarlike population of Constantinople, Diebitsch held the Ottoman power at his mercy. The Porte bowed to the inevitable, and on September 14, 1829, signed with Russia the Treaty of Adrianople. True to his undertaking, the Tsar stipulated for no territorial increase in Europe; but the Danubian principalities were erected into practically independent states, and so, presumably, more open to Russian influences than heretofore. The treaty rights of Russia in the navigation of

*The Peace
of Adria-
nople.*

Russia takes no territory.

Consternation in Europe.

Greece a sovereign State.

the Bosphorus and Dardanelles were once more confirmed; and the affairs of Greece were arranged by the inclusion in the treaty of the terms of the protocol which had been signed at the Conference of London on March 22.

The news of the Peace of Adrianople, and more especially of the fact that Russia, by including the March Protocol, had stolen the sole credit for the settlement of the Greek claims, produced something like a panic among the powers. Wellington declared that the Turkish power in Europe no longer existed, and that, this being so, it was absurd to talk of bolstering it up. In any case, since the Russian occupation of the principalities made Turkey to all intents and purposes a province of Russia, the integrity of the Ottoman Empire was no longer of supreme importance to England. Wellington, accordingly, was won over to Metternich's view, that Greece must be erected into a State independent of Turkey, and therefore independent of Russia; a State bound, moreover, by ties of gratitude, not to the Tsar, who had obtained for her no more than the terms which she had indignantly rejected, but to those Western powers, from whom she was now to receive her liberty without conditions. On February 3, 1830, was signed, at London, a new Protocol embodying the views of the British Government. Its terms showed that England had not abandoned all hope that the moribund "sick man" might yet recover, and was reluctant to create a new power which

might imperil a consummation so devoutly to be wished. Greece, indeed, was to be erected into an independent State, under Leopold of Coburg, as "sovereign prince," but the generous frontiers of the March Protocol were again contracted, and, instead of the Greece of Pan-Hellenic dreams, a mere fragment of Hellas was restored to liberty. In recommending this settlement, it was the deliberate intention of the British Government to leave Greece at the mercy of the Porte. Count Capodistrias, however, who since the period of the battle of Navarino had ruled Greece as practical dictator, refused to accept the Protocol of February 3, as he had rejected that of March 22. Prince Leopold, too, resigned his candidature, on the plea that his position would, under the terms of the Protocol, be intolerable. The powers were compelled to make yet further concessions. Many reasons made a final and satisfactory settlement absolutely imperative. The Revolution in Paris, which hurled Charles X. from his throne, raised questions even more vital than the affairs of the East; and, in the face of these new problems, it was felt that any arrangement of the Greek Question would be better than none. Greece, meanwhile, had lapsed into a more hopeless anarchy than ever. Capodistrias, who at least had ruled with a firm hand, had been assassinated; and the whole country was now being harried and wasted by armed factions struggling for the mastery. It was found practically impossible to curb the anarchy by "instructions" from London;

The powers make further concessions.

Assassination of Capodistrias.

*The
Kingdom
of Greece.*

and the erection of a stable government became indispensable. In November, 1830, the Tory ministry of Wellington had been swept away by the rising tide of reform; and it was Palmerston who, in the name of the new Whig Cabinet, signed, on September 26, 1831, a protocol conceding to the Greek State the frontier of Arta-Volo, for which he had pleaded when in opposition. The crown of Greece was, at the same time, offered to, and accepted by, Otho, second son of King Louis of Bavaria, a youth of seventeen. King Louis stipulated that his son should be King, and not Sovereign Prince, of Greece, and that an adequate loan should be guaranteed by the powers to enable him to carry on the government. On May 7, 1832, more than a decade after the outbreak of the Greek revolt, the treaty was finally signed which added a new Christian Kingdom to the states' system of Europe. On January 28, 1833, Otho, first King of Greece, landed at Nauplia to attempt, with the aid of Bavarian officials and Bavarian mercenaries, the task of molding a race of Klephts and herdsmen into a civilized people.

MODERN ILLUMINATION

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE

THE first illuminants were probably torches made of resinous woods, which will give a flame for a considerable time. Then the resin, exuding from many kinds of trees, would be collected and applied to sticks or twigs, or to some fibrous materials tied up in bundles, such as are still used by many savage peoples, and were used in the old baronial halls. For outdoor lights, torches were used almost down to our times, an indication of which is seen in the iron torch-extinguishers at the doors of many of the older West End houses; while, before the introduction of gas, linkboys were as common in the streets as match-sellers are now. Then came lamps, formed of small clay cups, holding some melted animal fat and a fibrous wick; and, somewhat later, rushlights and candles. Still later, vegetable oils were used for lamps, and wax candles; but the three modes of obtaining illumination for domestic purposes remained entirely unchanged in principle, and very little improved throughout the whole period of history down to the end of the Eighteenth Century. The

Ancient illuminations.

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

Greek and Roman lamps.

Greek and Roman lamps, though in beautiful receptacles of bronze or silver, were exactly the same in principle as those of the lowest savage, and hardly better in light-giving power; and, though various improvements in form were introduced, the first really important advance was made by the Argand burner. This introduced a current of air into the centre of the flame as well as outside it, and, by means of a glass chimney, a regular supply of air was kept up, and a steady light produced. Although the invention was made at the end of the last century, the lamps were not sufficiently improved and cheapened to come into use till about 1830; and from that time onward many other improvements were made, chiefly dependent on the use of the cheap mineral oils, rendering lamps so inexpensive, and producing so good a light, that they are now found in the poorest cottages.

Improvements in candles.

The only important improvement in candles is due to the use of paraffin fats instead of tallow, and of flat, plaited wicks which are consumed by the flame. In my boyhood, the now extinct "snuffers" were in universal use, from the common rough iron article in the kitchen to elaborate polished steel spring-snuffers of various makes for the parlor, with pretty metal or *papier maché* trays for them to stand in. Candles are still very largely used, being more portable and safer than most of the paraffin oil lamps. Even our lighthouses used only candles down to the early part of the present century.

MODERN ILLUMINATION

A far more important and more radical change in our modes of illumination was the introduction of gas-lighting. A few houses and factories were lighted with gas at the very end of the last century, but its first application to outdoor or general purposes was in 1813, when Westminster Bridge was illuminated by it, and so successfully that its use rapidly spread to every town in the kingdom, for lighting private houses as well as streets and public buildings. When it was first proposed to light London with gas, Sir Humphry Davy is said to have declared it to be impracticable, both on account of the enormous size of the needful gas-holders, and the great danger of explosions. These difficulties have, however, been overcome, as was the supposed insuperable difficulty of carrying sufficient coal in the case of steamships crossing the Atlantic, the impossibilities of one generation becoming the realities of the next.

Still more recent, and more completely new in principle, is the electric light, which has already attained a considerable extension for public and private illumination, while it is applicable to many purposes unattainable by other kinds of light. Small incandescent lamps are now used for examinations of the larynx and in dentistry, and a lamp has even been introduced into the stomach by which the condition of that organ can be examined. For this last purpose, numerous ingenious arrangements have to be made to prevent possible injury, and by means of prisms at the bends of the tube the

Gas-lighting.

The electric light.

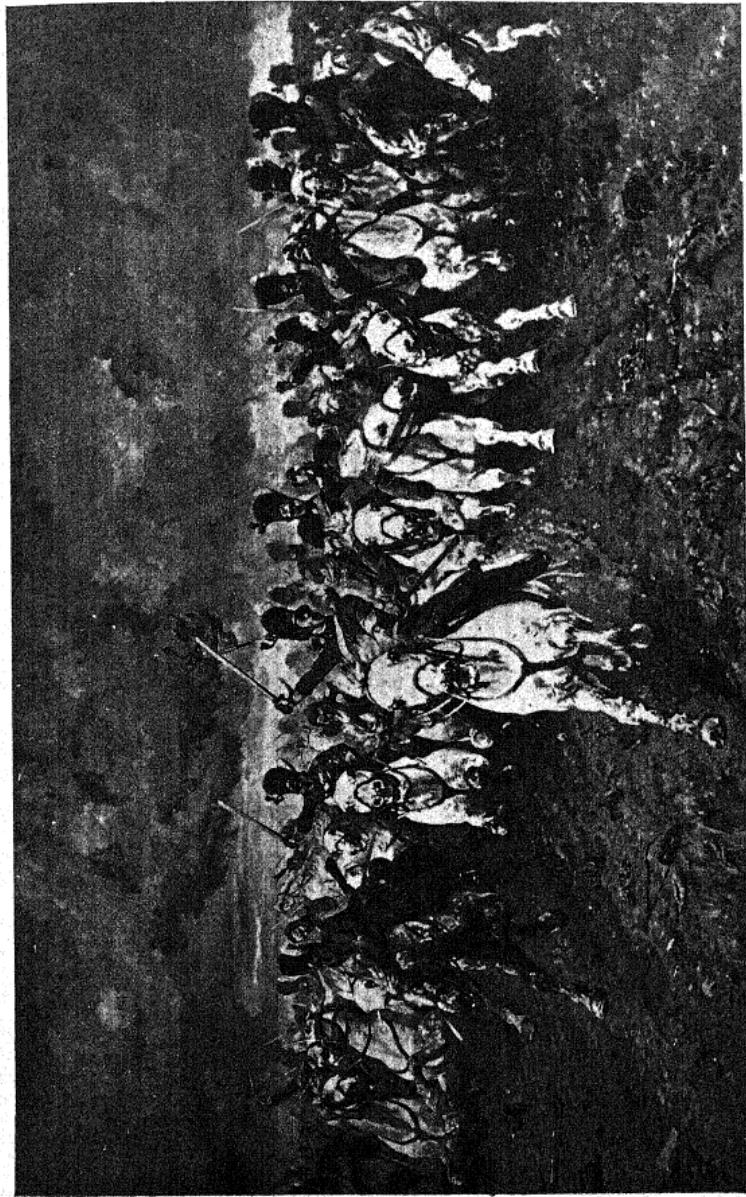
THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

operator can inspect the interior of the organ under a brilliant light. Other internal organs have been explored in a similar manner, and many new applications in this direction will no doubt be made. In illuminating submarine boats and exploring the interiors of sunken vessels, it does what could hardly be effected by any other means.

Three great improvements.
multiple uses.

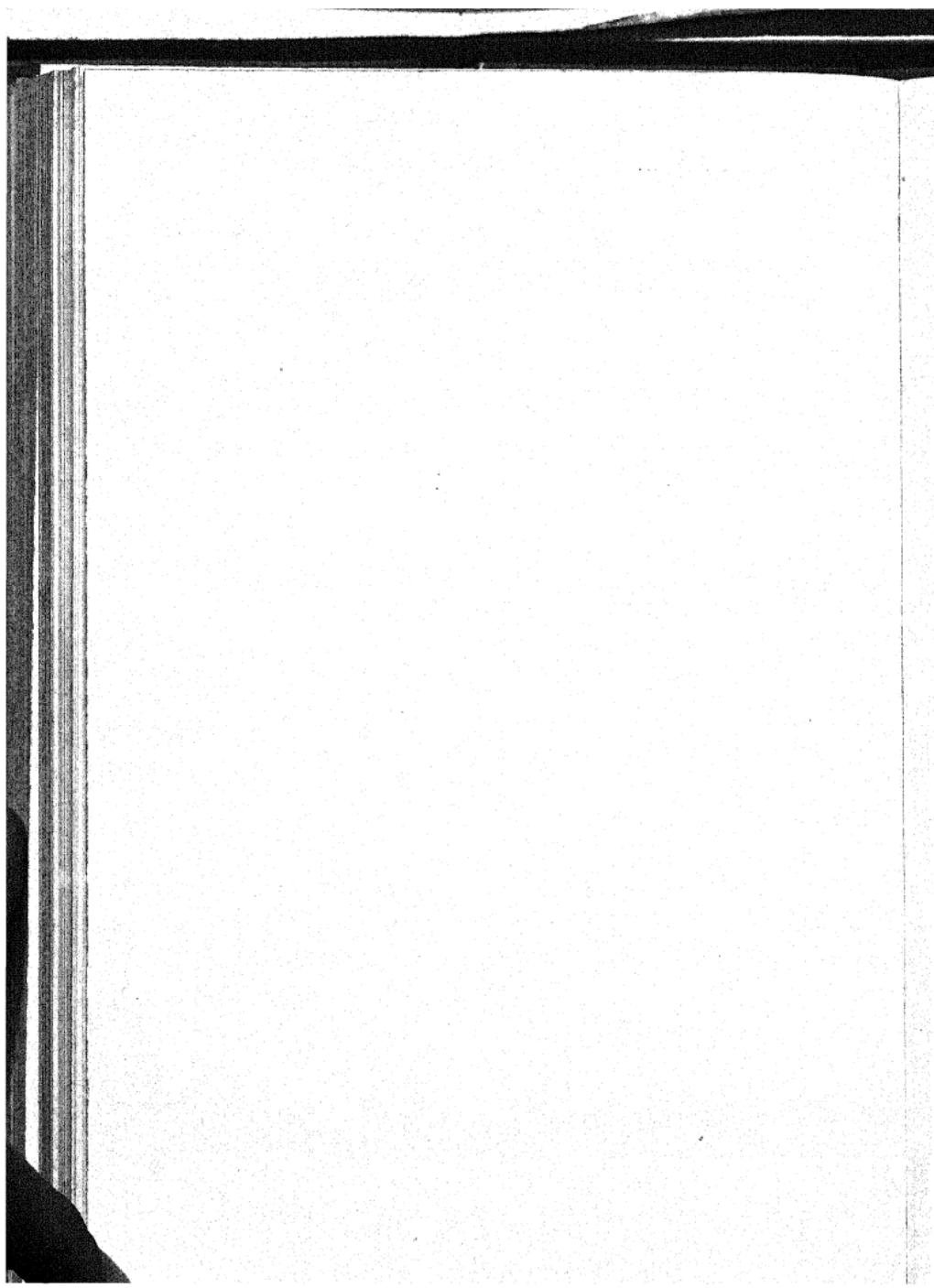
We thus find that, whereas down to the end of the last century our modes of producing and utilizing light were almost exactly the same as had been in use for the preceding two or three thousand years, in the present century we have made no less than three new departures, all of which are far superior to the methods of our forefathers. These are: (1) the improvement in lamps by the use of the principle of the Argand burner and chimney; (2) lighting by coal-gas; and (3) the various modes of electric lighting. The amount of advance in this one department of domestic and public illumination during the present century is enormous, while the electric light has opened up new fields of scientific exploration.

Whether we consider the novelty of the principles involved or the ingenuity displayed in their application, we can not estimate this advance at less than that effected during the whole preceding period of human history, from that very remote epoch when fire was first taken into the service of mankind, down to the time of men now living among us.



"SCOTLAND FOR EVER!"—CHARGE OF THE FAMOUS SCOTS GREYS AT WATERLOO (Page 174)

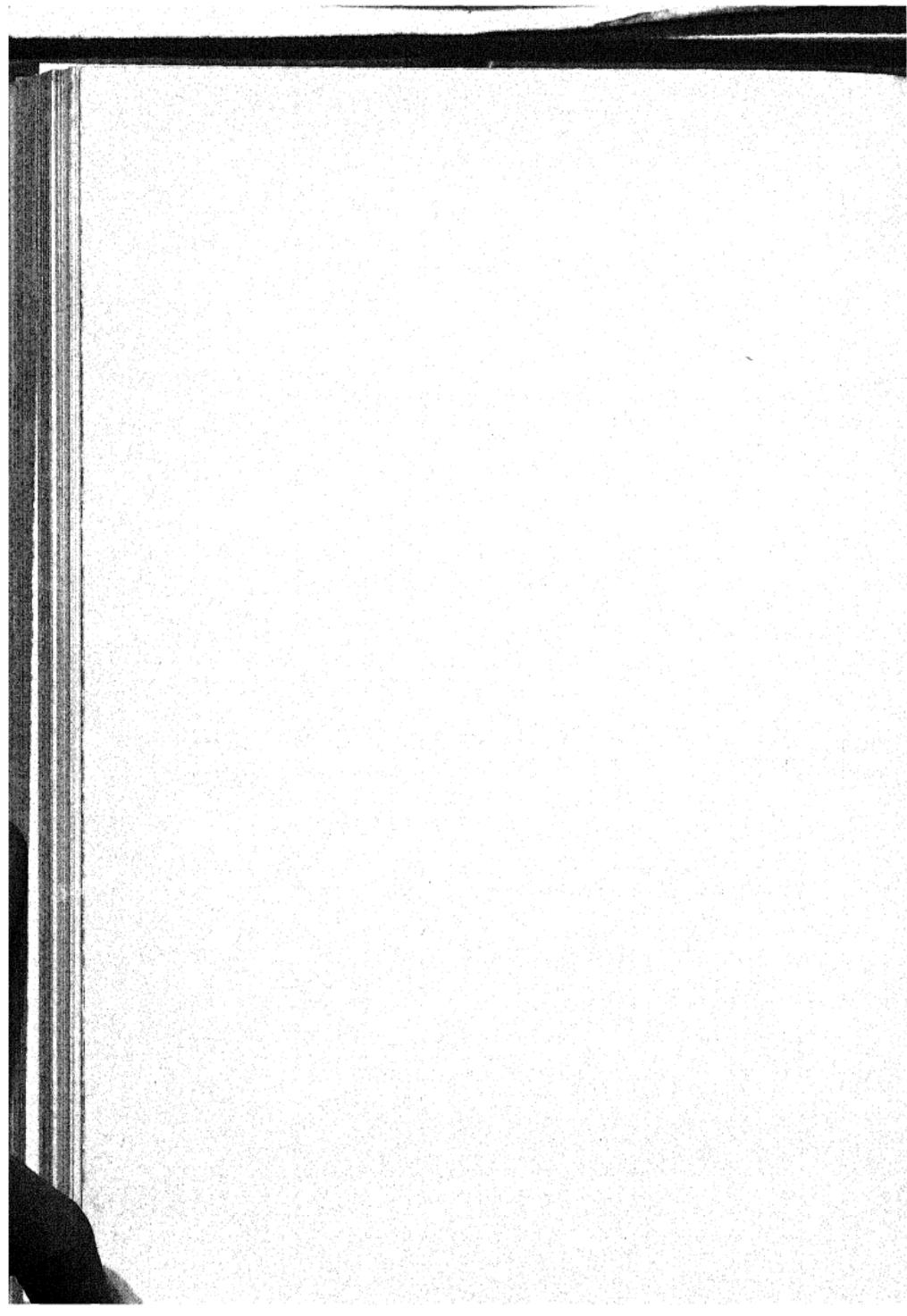
FROM THE PAINTING BY ELIZABETH BUTLER THOMPSON



MODERN ILLUMINATION

[In 1821, Brazil declares its independence and elects Dom Pedro Emperor. Peru, Guatemala, Costa Rica, La Plata, Uruguay and Venezuela also proclaim their independence, and the Republic of San Domingo is formed. In 1822, Iturbide becomes Emperor of Mexico. The United States recognize the independent colonies. In 1823, the Monroe Doctrine is formulated. In 1824, Bolivia is formed into an independent republic. In 1826, the mutinous Janizaries are massacred, leaving the Sultan without an army, which forces him to accept all the Czar's demands. Russia declares war against Persia. In 1828, Russia conquers Armenia and prohibits Persian ships on the Caspian. The Sultan preaches a Holy War, and the Czar captures Varna, Kars and Erzerum. The Gold Coast Protectorate is formed. In 1829, the King of Spain abolishes the Salic law on his fourth marriage. His brother, Don Carlos, protests, but a daughter, Isabella, is born to the King and recognized as his heiress. Western Australia is founded. In 1830, the Poles rise in Warsaw and massacre the Russians. French troops land in Algiers.]

*The
Monroe
Doctrine
formulated.*



THE CONQUEST OF ALGERIA

(A.D. 1830-1857)

DAVID KAY

THE history of Algiers presents little calling for special notice down to the expedition of Lord Exmouth. The principal States of Europe had had their attention taken up with weightier matters; but on the establishment of the peace of 1815 the English sent a squadron of ships, under Lord Exmouth, to Algiers, to demand the liberation of all slaves then in bondage there, and the entire discontinuance of piratical depredations. Afraid to refuse, the Algerines returned a conciliatory answer, and released a number of their slaves; but no sooner had the ships left than they redoubled their activity and perpetrated every sort of cruelty against the Christians. Among other acts of cruelty, they attacked and massacred a number of Neapolitan fishermen who were engaged in the pearl fishery at Bona. The news of this excited great indignation in England, and Lord Exmouth was again despatched with five ships of the line and eight smaller vessels, and at

*England
demands
the libera-
tion of
the slaves.*

Bombardment of Algiers.

The Dey submits.

The Dey insults the French consul.

Gibraltar he was joined by a Dutch fleet of six frigates, under Admiral Capellen. They anchored in front of Algiers on the 26th of August, 1816. Certain terms, which were extremely moderate, were proposed to the Dey; but these not meeting with acceptance, a fierce bombardment was at once commenced. At first the assailants were subjected to a heavy fire from the enemies' batteries; but after a time these were one by one silenced, and ship after ship caught fire, till the destruction of the Algerine naval force was complete. Next day the terms proposed to the Dey were accepted; Christian slaves to the number of 1,211 were set at liberty, and a promise was given that piracy and Christian slavery should cease forever. The Algerines, however, did not long adhere to the terms of the treaty. They lost no time in putting their city in a more formidable state of defence than before, and this done, they considered themselves in a condition to set the great powers of Europe at defiance.

Various injuries had from time to time been inflicted on the French shipping, but that which more directly led to a declaration of war was an insult offered to the French consul by the Dey. A debt had been contracted by the French Government to two Jewish merchants of Algiers at the time of the expedition to Egypt; and the Dey, having a direct interest in the matter, had made repeated applications for payment, but without success. Annoyed at this and at what he considered insulting language on the part of the consul, he struck the latter

on the face in public. In consequence of this, a French squadron was sent to Algiers which took the consul on board and for three years maintained an ineffectual blockade. At length war on a great scale was resolved on, and a fleet was equipped at Toulon in May, 1830, under the command of Admiral Duperré. It had also on board a land force, under the command of General Bourmont, consisting of 37,000 infantry, 4,000 cavalry, and a proportionate number of artillery. The troops began to land on the 14th of June upon the western side of the peninsula of Sidi Ferruch, in the Bay of Torre Chica. They did not meet with much opposition till the 19th, when a general attack was made upon them by a force of from 40,000 to 50,000 men. These, after a fierce conflict, were completely routed. They renewed their attack on the 24th and 25th, but were on both occasions repulsed. The French then advanced upon Algiers, and on the 29th the trenches were opened. On the morning of the 4th of July, the bombardment commenced, and before night a treaty was concluded for the entire surrender of Algiers. The next day the French took possession of the town; and twelve ships of war, 1,500 brass cannon, and over £2,000,000 sterling came into their hands as conquerors. The Turkish troops were permitted to go wherever they pleased, provided they left Algiers, and most of them were conveyed to Asia Minor. The Dey himself, with his private property and a large body of attendants, retired to Naples.

*France
declares
war.*

*Algiers
surrenders.*

The French decide to hold Algiers.

Rejoicings in France.

When the French undertook the expedition against Algiers a pledge was given to the English Government that they did not aim at the permanent possession of the country, but only at obtaining satisfaction for the injuries and insults they had received, and putting down that system of piracy which had so long outraged Europe. The French Government engaged that, these objects being accomplished, the final settlement and government of the country should be arranged in concert with the other European powers for the general advantage. Notwithstanding this, the French Ministry in 1833 publicly declared that it was the intention of their government to retain possession of Algiers and to colonize it. Subsequently, the English Government acquiesced in this, on receiving an engagement that the French would not extend their conquests beyond Algeria, either on the side of Tunis or of Morocco.

The capture of Algiers was celebrated in France with great demonstrations of joy. General Bourmont was raised to the rank of marshal, and Admiral Wuperré was promoted to the peerage. The revolution of 1830 followed, when Bourmont was deposed, and General Clauzel appointed to succeed him. The conquerors, instead of attempted to gain the good-will of the natives, destroyed a number of their mosques, seized upon lands set apart for religious purposes, and attempted to introduce their own laws and usages in place of those of the country, the consequence of which was that the natives enter-

tained the greatest abhorrence for their oppressors, whom they regarded as the enemies of God and their prophet.

General Clausel incensed them still more by seizing *French oppression.*

upon the possessions of the Dey, the Beys, and the expelled Turks, in direct opposition to the conditions on which the capital had been surrendered. Bona was taken possession of, and an incursion was made into the southern province of Titterie, when the troops of the Bey were defeated and Mediah taken. The Beys of Titterie and Oran were deposed, and tributary rulers set up in their room. Still the war continued. The French were incessantly harassed by irruptions of hordes of the Arabs, so that no Frenchman was safe, even in the vicinity of the town; and little reliance could be placed on the fidelity of the Beys who governed the provinces. Mediah was evacuated, and Oran abandoned. In February, 1831, *War continues.*

General Berthezene was appointed commander-in-chief, and undertook several expeditions into the interior to chastise the hostile troops, but met with little success. In October, Bona was surrounded and taken by the Kabyles. There was now no safety but in the town of Algiers; agriculture was consequently neglected, and it was necessary to send to France for supplies of provisions and for fresh troops. In November, 1831, General Savary, Duc de Rovigo, was sent out with an additional force of 16,000 men. The new governor sought to accomplish his ends by the grossest acts of cruelty and treachery. One of his exploits was the massacre of a

French reinforcements needed.

whole Arab tribe, including old men, women, and children, during night, on account of a robbery committed by some of them. He also treacherously murdered two Arab chiefs whom he had enticed into his power by a written assurance of safety. These proceedings exasperated the natives still further against the French, and those tribes that had hitherto remained quiet took up arms against them.

Abd-el-Kader.

About this time Abd-el-Kader first appears upon the field. His father, a Marabout, had collected a few followers, and attacked and taken possession of the town of Oran. On this they wished to elect him as their chief, but he declined the honor on account of his great age; and recommended his son, who, he said, was endowed with all the qualities necessary to success. Abd-el-Kader was born about the beginning of 1807, and had early acquired a great reputation among his countrymen for learning and piety, as he was also distinguished among them for skill in horsemanship and other manly exercises. He had made two pilgrimages to Mecca in company with his father, once when a child and again in 1828, by which he obtained the title of *Hadji*. At this time he was living in obscurity, distinguished by the austerity of his manners, his piety, and his zeal in observing the precepts of the Koran. He collected an army of 10,000 horsemen, and, accompanied by his father, marched to attack Oran, which had been taken possession of by the French. They arrived before the town

*Attack
on Oran.*

about the middle of May, 1832, but after continuing their attack for three days with great bravery they were repulsed with considerable loss. This was followed by a series of conflicts, more or less severe, between the parties; but without any permanent or decided advantage to either side. In March, 1833, the Duc de Rovigo was obliged on account of his health to return to France, and General Avisard was appointed interim governor; but the latter dying soon after, General Voirol was nominated his successor. Abd-el-Kader was still extending his influence more and more widely among the Arab tribes; and the French at last considered it to be their interest to offer him terms of peace. A treaty was accordingly concluded with him by General Desmichels, Governor of Oran, in February, 1834, in which he acknowledged the supremacy of France, and was recognized by them as Emir of the province of Mascara. One of the conditions of the treaty was that the Emir was to have a monopoly of the trade with the French in corn. This part of the treaty was regarded with great dissatisfaction at home, and the General was removed from his post. In July, General Drouet d'Erlon was sent out as Governor-General of the colony. An intendant or head of the civil government was also appointed, as well as a commissary of justice at the head of the judicature. Tribunals of justice were also established, by which both French and natives were allowed to enjoy their respective laws. From the tranquil state of the country at this time, the

Abd-el-Kader's power increases.

Temporary tranquillity.

French
defeat at
Makta.

Defeat of
Abd-el-
Kader.

new governor was enabled to devote his attention to its improvement. The French, however, soon became jealous of the power of the Emir, and on the pretence that he had been encroaching on their territory, General Trezel, who had succeeded Desmichels in the governorship of Oran, was sent against him with a considerable force. The armies met at the river Makta, and the French were routed with great slaughter on the 28th of June, 1835. On the news of this defeat, Marshal Clausel was sent to Algiers to succeed Count d'Erlon. In order effectually to humble the Emir, he set out for his capital, Mascara, accompanied by the Duke of Orleans, at the head of 11,000 men. On reaching the town the French found it deserted, and, having set it on fire, they returned without having effected anything of consequence. In January, 1836, Marshal Clausel undertook an expedition against Tlemcen, which he took and garrisoned. Soon after this the Emir attacked and put to flight a body of 3,000 men under Count d'Arlanges on the Tafna. General Bugeaud, who had succeeded Marshal Clausel, attacked the Arabs under Abd-el-Kader on the Sikak River, 6th July, 1836, and gained a complete victory over them. An expedition against the Bey of Constantine was next resolved on, and Marshal Clausel, at the head of 8,000 men, set out from Bona for this purpose in November, 1836. They encountered on their march a severe storm of hail and snow, followed by a sharp frost, so that many of them died; and when they ar-

rived before the walls of the town they were unable to undertake the siege, and effected their retreat with difficulty. The French were now anxious to conclude a peace with Abd-el-Kader, and with this view General Bugeaud arranged a meeting with him on the banks of the Tafna, and a treaty was signed, 30th of May, 1837. They were then free to turn their strength against the Bey of Constantine, and an army of 20,000 men set out from Bona with this object, under the command of General Damrémont, early in October. The town was, after a very gallant defence, taken by storm on the 12th of that month by General Valée, General Damrémont having been killed by a cannon-ball the previous day. On the capture of the city the neighboring tribes hastened to make their submission to the conquerors, and a strong garrison being left to defend the town, the army returned to Bona. As a reward for his services, General Valée was made a marshal and appointed governor-general of the colony. Disputes with the Emir as to the boundaries of his territory were frequent, and at length war was again declared between the parties. The immediate cause of war on this occasion was the marching of an armed force of French troops through the Emir's territory. This the latter looked upon as an infringement of the treaty, and consequently declared war. In October, 1839, he suddenly fell upon the French troops in the plain of Metidja, and routed them with great slaughter, destroying and laying waste the European settlements. He surprised and

*Treaty
of 1837.*

*The Emir
defeats the
French.*

*France
sends rein-
forcements.*

*Defence of
Masagran.*

*Successive
French
triumphs.*

cut to pieces bodies of troops on their march; outposts and encampments were taken by sudden assault; and at length the possessions of the French were reduced to the fortified places which they occupied. On the news of these events reaching France, reinforcements to the amount of 20,000 men were sent out. The spring campaign was vigorously opened on both sides, and numerous skirmishes took place, but without decisive results to either party. The French were, indeed, everywhere successful in the field, but the scattered troops of the enemy would speedily reassemble and sweep the plains, so that there was no safety beyond the camps and the walls of the towns. The fort of Masagran, near Mostaganem, with a garrison of only 123 men, gallantly withstood a fierce attack by 12,000 to 15,000 Arabs, which lasted for three days. Marshal Valée was now recalled and General Bugeaud appointed to succeed him. The latter arrived at Algiers on the 22d of February, 1841, and adopted a new system, which was completely successful. He made use of movable columns, radiating from Algiers, Oran, and Constantine, and having from 80,000 to 100,000 troops at his disposal, the result soon told against the Emir. Many of the Arab tribes were thus intimidated or brought under subjection, hard-pressed garrisons were relieved and victualled, and town after town taken. Tekedemt, the principal stronghold of Abd-el-Kader, was destroyed, and the citadel blown up; Mascara was taken; and Saida, the only remaining fortress

in the possession of the Emir, was entirely demolished. In January, 1842, the town of Tlemcen was taken, and ten days afterward the fort of Tafna, which was demolished. The terrified Arabs submitted on all sides, and now almost the entire country was subdued. The Emir himself, driven to extremities, was compelled to take refuge in Morocco. Here he succeeded in raising a considerable force, and returned to Algeria. He made up for the want of troops by the rapidity of his movements, and would suddenly make an attack on one place when he was supposed to be in quite an opposite quarter. In November, 1842, the Duke of Aumale arrived in Algiers to take part in the operations against the Emir; and in the spring of the following year he suddenly fell upon the camp of Abd-el-Kader while the great body of his troops was absent and took several thousand prisoners and a large booty, the Emir himself making his escape with difficulty. Not long afterward the latter again took refuge in Morocco, and so excited the fanatical passions of the people of that country that their ruler was forced into a war with France. The army which was sent into Algeria was attacked and defeated by Bugeaud at the river Isly, 14th August, 1844. The Emperor of Morocco soon afterward sued for peace, which was granted him on condition that he should no longer succor or shelter the Emir, but aid in pursuing him. Abd-el-Kader was now reduced to great extremities, and obliged to take refuge in the mountain fastnesses, whence he would from

*Submission
of the
Arabs.*

*Morocco
incited
to war.*

*The affair
of the cave.*

time to time come down to annoy the French. In June, 1845, a tribe of Arabs, who were being pursued by a body of French troops under General Pelissier, took refuge in a cave. As they refused to surrender, the general ordered a fire to be kindled at the mouth of the cave, and the whole of those within, men, women, and children, to the number of 500, were suffocated. The Emir at length was brought to such straits that he agreed to deliver himself up to the French on being allowed to retire to Alexandria or St. Jean d'Acre. Notwithstanding this promise, which was given by General Lamorière, and ratified by the governor-general, he was taken to France, where he arrived on the 29th of January, 1848; and was imprisoned first in the castle of Pau, and afterward in that of Amboise, near Blois. In October, 1852, Louis Napoleon, then President of the French Republic, gave him his liberty on condition that he should not return to Algeria, but reside at Broussò in Asia Minor. Here he remained until 1855, when, in consequence of the destruction of that town by an earthquake, he obtained permission to remove to Constantinople, and afterward to Damascus. At the latter place he rendered valuable aid to the Christians by protecting them during the massacre by the Turks in Syria in 1860.

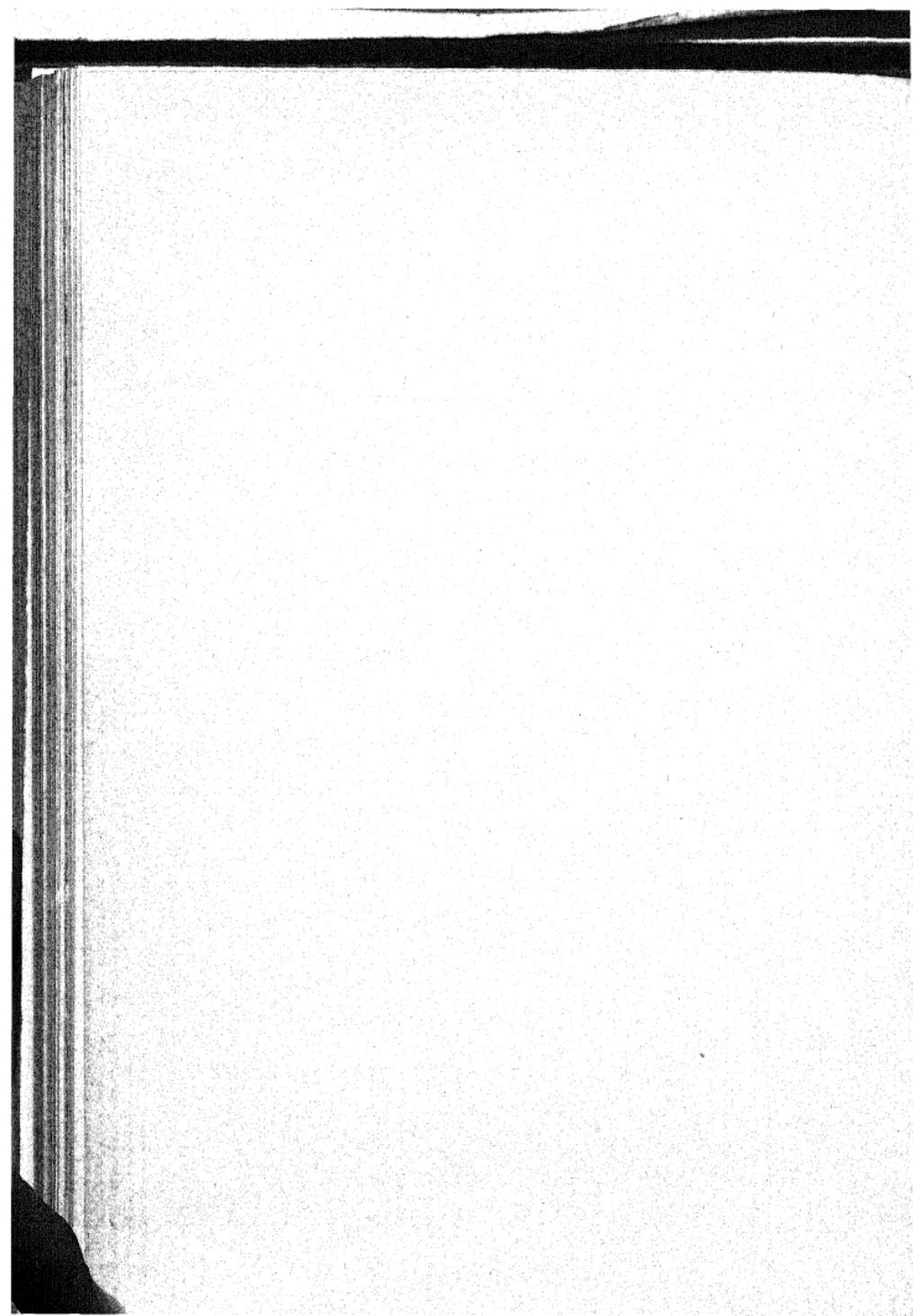
*Treatment
of Abd-el
Kader.*

[In 1831, after heroically defending Grochow, Warsaw, and Cracow, thousands of Poles are sent to Siberia. Mehemet Ali invades Syria; Ibrahim besieges Acre. In

1832, the Reform Bill becomes law. It abolishes 56 boroughs, and reduces 30 to one member each. Sixty-five seats are given to counties, 22 towns receive two each, and 21, one each. The French conquer Antwerp. Otto of Bavaria accepts the Greek crown. The Sultan declares war against Mehemet Ali, who has conquered Acre, but who is defeated. In 1833, all the German States adopt the Zollverein. Ferdinand of Spain dies; Isabella, aged three, becomes Queen, with her mother, Cristina, as Regent. This arrangement is recognized by England and France, but Don Carlos, supported by the Church and the Basques, claims the crown. Cristina gains the Liberals by establishing two elective chambers. Russia forces Mehemet Ali to cease hostilities, but he receives the government of Syria and Egypt. In 1834, Mazzini founds Young Europe and organizes a raid into Savoy. The Carlist War begins, the Basques supporting Don Carlos. In 1835, the life of the King of France is attempted by Fieschi, and consequent repressive laws regarding the press and political trials are passed. The Carlists gain ground. The Sultan regains power in Tripoli. In 1836, Louis Napoleon fails to excite a rising at Strasburg and is exiled to America. France and Austria force Switzerland to expel all political refugees. A body of Boers trek from Cape Colony and settle in Natal. They subdue the Zulus. In 1837, Victoria succeeds her uncle on the throne of England, and Hanover passes to another uncle, the Duke of Cumberland.]

Mazzini
finds
Young
Europe.

Victoria
becomes
Queen of
England.



THE BEGINNING OF FREE TRADE

(A.D. 1838-1842)

ROBERT MACKENZIE

Wealth of
Nations. **I**N 1776, Adam Smith, a Glasgow professor, published a book on the *Wealth of Nations*. In this book he argued with irresistible force that it was an exceedingly foolish thing for a nation to make the commodities which it consumed artificially dear, in order to benefit the home producers of these articles. William Pitt read the *Wealth of Nations* with care. The reasonings of the wise Scotchman were an economical revelation to the great minister. It is certain that he intended to embody them in his own commercial policy, and the era of Free Trade seemed about to dawn. The Man had come, but not the Hour. Pitt was drawn, reluctantly at first, into the war with France, and the opportunity of commercial reform was never given to him again. Henceforth, during all his life and for years after, enormous war expenditure compelled the indiscriminate levy of taxes, without regard to any result but

the immediate possession of money. Pitt's mantle did not fall on his successors in office, nor even upon his great rival. Fox owned frankly that he could not understand Adam Smith.

Evils of protection.

The protected interests—the landlords, the farmers, and the shipowners—were naturally blind to the mischief wrought by protection. But the classes whose business it was to manufacture and to distribute commodities were quick to discover the evils of a system which limited consumption by making commodities artificially dear. The mercantile class was now becoming powerful by wealth and intelligence, and, although yet scarcely represented in the Legislature, was able to command respectful attention to its wants. The merchants of Great Britain were first to perceive that restriction was injurious to the nation; and the merchants of London, in a petition to the House of Commons, were the first to give forth an authoritative condemnation of the system.

The merchants condemn it.

The Anti-Corn Law League.

Under the influence of Mr. Huskisson (1823-24), various steps in the direction of a Free Trade policy were taken. A preference for unrestricted commercial intercourse continued steadily to gain ground in all parts of the country. In 1836, and for two or three succeeding years, the harvest was defective, and much suffering prevailed. Enough had been said about freedom of trade to guide the hungry people to monopoly as the origin of their sorrows. Supported by a growing concord of opinion in all the cities, an Anti-Corn Law League was

formed in Manchester (1838), and an organized agitation was begun such as no government could long resist.

The soul of the Free Trade agitation was Richard Cobden. When Cobden, at the opening of his career, surveyed the abuses of his time, that he might determine where his service could be most usefully bestowed, he had almost chosen to devote himself to the cause of education. But he saw that the masses of the people were kept poor by unjust laws, and he knew that poverty brings moral degradation. Material welfare, he believed, was the indispensable foundation of moral progress; or as Sir Robert Peel expressed it after his conversion to Free Trade—"I am perfectly convinced that the real way to improve the condition of the laborer, and to elevate the character of the working-classes of this country, is to give them a command over the necessities of life." He chose freedom of trade as his life-work; he chose John Bright as his fellow workman.

Richard Cobden.

John Bright.

The Anti-Corn Law League applied itself to its task with energy unsurpassed in the annals of political agitation. The wealthy mercantile class supplied lavishly the funds required. Tracts were circulated by the million. Skilled lecturers overran the country. The speeches of Cobden and Bright in Parliament and elsewhere were universally read, and lodged in all impartial minds the conviction that restriction of commerce was at once impolitic and unjust.

In 1845, Sir Robert Peel was at the head of a Con-

Sir Robert Peel.

servative government, the supporters of which understood that it was pledged to defend the monopoly of the landed interests. Sir Robert had been forced to make concessions to the Free Trade party. He had modified somewhat the duties on corn, and he reduced or abolished duties on seven hundred and fifty other articles which were taxed by the intolerable tariff of the time. But these concessions, so far from being accepted by the free-traders, merely stimulated them to greater efforts.

The summer had been ungenial, and during the autumn months rain fell unceasingly. In August, an alarm was whispered as to the condition of the Irish potato crop. There was a daily interchange of notes between Sir Robert and his Home Secretary, Sir James Graham, who was then at Netherby. Peel's tone was one of deep and ever-deepening alarm. His reports from Ireland, which had been from the first gloomy, soon became tragical from the intensity of the peril which they disclosed. The entire potato crop was rapidly perishing, and still the pitiless rain fell incessantly. The people of Ireland were visibly to suffer loss of their whole supply of food for the approaching winter. The grain crops of England and Scotland were seriously injured too. Winter was at hand. The supply of food was miserably insufficient, and laws were in force which must have the effect of keeping it so.

*Failure of
the potato
crop in
Ireland.*

Sir Robert Peel summoned his Cabinet to the consideration of these appalling circumstances. He would not

incur the guilt of maintaining laws which within a few weeks must inflict the horrors of famine upon the people. The Corn Law must be, at the very least, suspended. But if suspended, there was no prospect, in the present temper of the public mind, that it could ever be reimposed. He preferred, therefore, that it should be at once repealed.

He failed to convince some of his colleagues, and therefore resigned. But there was no other man in England strong enough to guide the nation in this hour of danger. Peel was recalled, and surrounded himself with men who were in full sympathy with his views. He proposed the total repeal of the Corn Law (January 19, 1846). A fierce contest in the House of Commons ensued, in which Mr. Disraeli earned fame and the leadership of the Tory party by his envenomed resistance to the measure. But Peel triumphed by a majority of 327 to 229. The House of Lords received ungraciously a measure which was deemed adverse to the interests of the landed class. But the Duke of Wellington was still the autocrat of that House, and his Grace, with a wisdom beyond that of his party, recognized and yielded to the inevitable. When peers who received their law from his venerable lips asked permission to vote against the bill, the duke said to them, "You can not dislike it more than I do; but we must all vote for it." They did vote for it in sufficient numbers to secure its enactment.

*Suspension
of the
Corn Law
considered.*

*Peel
resigns
but returns.*

Immediately after, the Tories were able to avenge themselves on Peel, by so outvoting him that he at once resigned. His closing words, on leaving office for the last time, were very pathetic. After speaking of the hostility which he had aroused among defeated monopolists—"It may be," he said, "that I shall be sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labor and earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow. I trust my name will be remembered by those men with expressions of goodwill, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food—the sweeter because no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

The Corn Law was the keystone of the protective system. When Free Trade in corn was gained, the other protected industries knew well that their hour was at hand. It was a vast work which the legislature had undertaken, and it was done boldly and swiftly. In 1842, there were twelve hundred articles on which duty was levied at British ports. A few years later there were only twelve, and these were retained merely for revenue. The idea of affording protection by means of duties imposed on imported articles was now completely and finally abandoned. Henceforth the artificial regulation of prices was to cease, and the great natural law of demand and supply was to exercise its uninterrupted, and in the end universally beneficent, dominion.

*The
measure
is passed.*

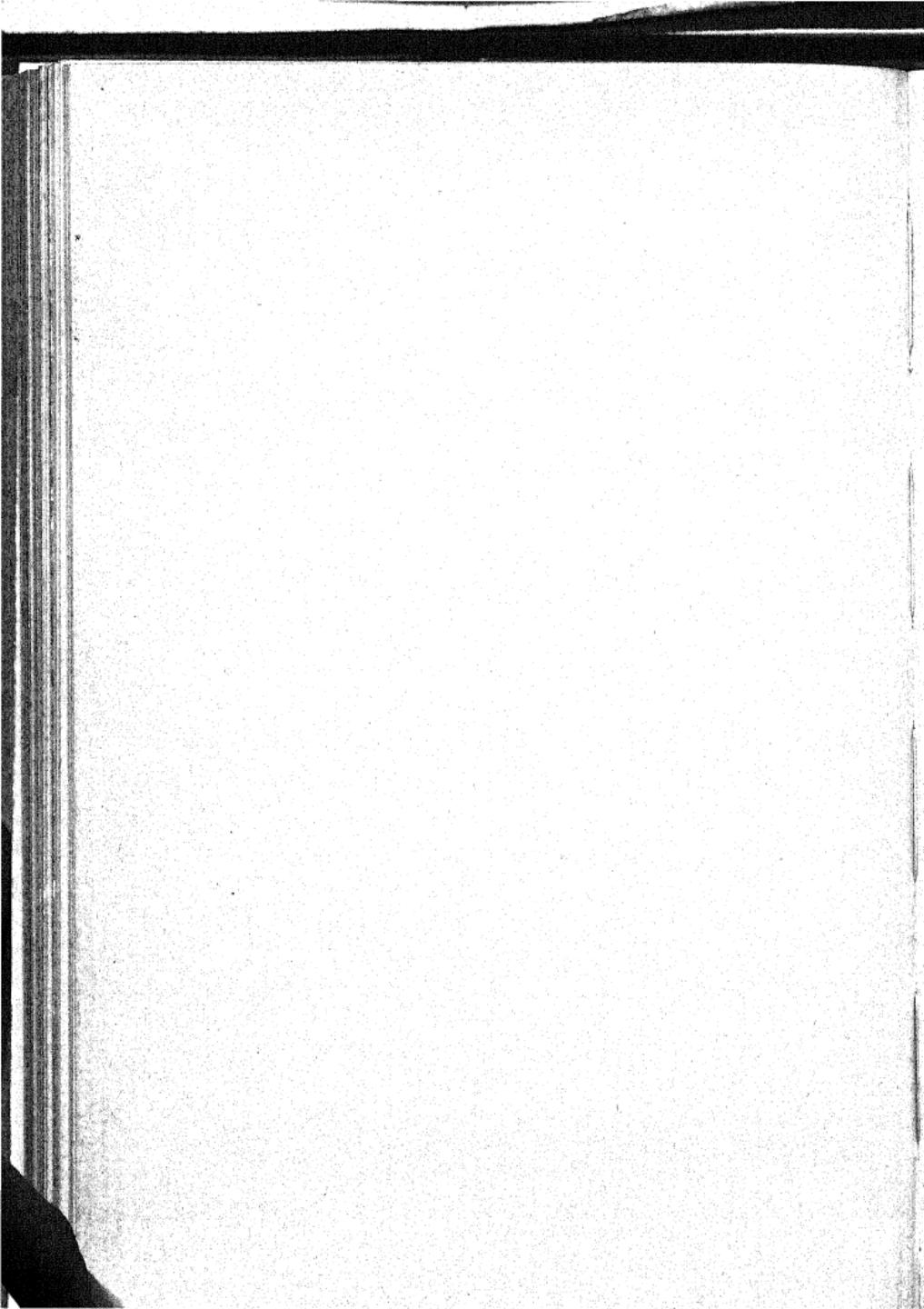
*Great
work of
the legis-
lature.*

*Free Trade
is gained.*

A.D. 1838-1842 THE BEGINNING OF FREE TRADE

[In 1838, Dost Mohammed receives a Russian mission at Cabul and Great Britain declares war. Mehemet Ali refuses to pay tribute to the Sultan, and demands that the Governorship of Egypt and Syria shall be hereditary. In 1839, Mehemet Ali gains many successes over the Turks. The Republic of Honduras is proclaimed; a British army deposes Dost Mohammed and places Shah Soojah on the throne of Afghanistan. The Canton merchants have to surrender their opium and leave China, whereupon Great Britain declares war and Canton is taken. Aden also is annexed.]

*Republic of
Honduras.*



THE OPENING OF CHINA

(A.D. 1839-1860)

JAMES LEGGE

IT was not till after the Cape of Good Hope was doubled, and the passage to India discovered by Vasco da Gama, in 1497, that intercourse between any of the European nations and China was possible by sea. It was in 1516 that the Portuguese first made their appearance at Canton; and they were followed at intervals of time by the Spaniards, the Dutch, and the English, in 1635. The Chinese received none of them cordially; and their dislike of them was increased by their mutual jealousies and collisions with one another. The Manchu sovereignty of the Empire, moreover, was then in the throes of its birth, and its rulers were the more disposed to assert their own superiority to all other potentates. They would not acknowledge them as their equals, but only as their vassals. They felt the power of the foreigners whenever they made an attempt to restrict their operations by force, and began to fear them. As they became aware of their conquests in the Philippines,

*Intercourse
and com-
merce with
Western
nations.*

*Arrogance
of the
Manchus.*

Importation of opium.

Java, and India, they would gladly have prohibited their approach to their territories altogether. In the meantime trade gradually increased, and there grew up the importation of opium from India, and the wonderful eagerness of multitudes to purchase and smoke it. Before 1767, the import rarely exceeded 200 chests, but that year it amounted to 1,000. In 1792, the British Government wisely sent an embassy, under Lord Macartney, to Peking with presents to the Emperor, to place the relations between the two countries on a secure and proper footing; but though the ambassador and members of his suite were courteously treated, the main objects were not accomplished. In 1800, an imperial edict expressly prohibited the importation of opium, and threatened all Chinese who smoked it with condign punishment. It had been before a smuggling traffic, and henceforth there could be no doubt of its real character. Still it went on, and increased from year to year. A second embassy from Great Britain, in 1816, was dismissed from Peking suddenly and contumeliously because the ambassador would not perform the ceremony of *San kwei chiü k'au* ("the repeated prostrations"), and thereby acknowledge his own sovereign to be but a vassal of the Empire.

Embassies from Great Britain.

So things went on till the charter of the East India Company expired in 1834, and the head of its factory was superseded by a representative of the sovereign of Great Britain, who could not conduct his intercourse with the hong merchants as the others had done. The

two nations were brought defiantly face to face. On the one side was a resistless force, determined to prosecute its enterprise for the enlargement of its trade, and the conduct of it as with an equal nation; on the other side was the old Empire seeming to be unconscious of its weakness, determined not to acknowledge the claim of equality, and confident of its power to suppress the import of opium. The Government of China made its grand and final effort in 1839, and in the spring of that year the famous Lin Tseh-hsü was appointed to the governor-generalship of the Kwang provinces, and to bring the barbarians to reason. Out of his measures came our first war, which was declared by Great Britain against China in 1840. There could be no doubt as to the result in so unequal a contest; and we hurry to its close at Nanking, the old capital of the Empire, where a treaty of peace was signed on the 29th of August, 1842, on board Her Majesty's ship *Cornwallis*. The principal articles were that the island of Hong Kong should be ceded to Great Britain; that the ports of Canton, Amoy and Fû-Châu (in Fû-chien), Ning-po (in Cheh-chiang), and Shang-hai (in Chiang-sû) should be opened to British trade and residence; and that thereafter official correspondence should be conducted on terms of equality according to the standing of the parties. Nothing was said in the treaty on the subject of opium, the smuggling traffic in which went on as before.

Conflicting national interests.

Great Britain's first war with China.

Treaty of 1842.

Before fifteen years had passed away, because of trou-

*Great
Britain's
second war.*

bles at Canton, not all creditable to Great Britain, and the obstinacy of the governor-general Yeh Ming-chin in refusing to meet Sir John Bowring, it was thought necessary by the British Government that war should be commenced against China again. In this undertaking France joined as our ally. Canton was taken on the 29th of December, 1857, when Yeh was captured and sent a prisoner to Calcutta. Canton being now in the possession of the allies, arrangements were made for its government by a joint commission; and in February, 1858, the allied plenipotentiaries, accompanied by the commissioners of the United States and Russia as non-combatants, proceeded to the north to lay their demands before the Emperor at Peking. There was not so much fighting as there had been in 1842, and on June 26 a second treaty was concluded at Tien-tsin, renewing and confirming the former, but with many important additional stipulations, the most important of which were that the sovereigns of Great Britain and China might, if they saw fit, appoint ambassadors, ministers, or other diplomatic agents to their respective courts; and that the British representative should not be required to perform any ceremony derogatory to him as representing the sovereign of an independent nation on an equality with China. Other stipulations provided for the protection of Christian missionaries and their converts; for liberty of British subjects to travel, for their pleasure or for purposes of trade, under passports, into all parts of the interior of the coun-

try; for the opening of five additional ports for commerce—Niû-chwang (in Shing-king, the chief province of Manchuria), Tang-chau (with port of Chee-foo, in Shan-tung), Tâiwan (Formosa, several ports), Châo-châu (with port of Swa-tau, in Kwang-tung), and Chiung (Kiung-châu, in Hâi-nan)—and for authority for merchant-ships to trade on the Yang-tsze River, ports on which would be opened when rebellion should have been put down and peace and order restored. (The river was not opened to steamer traffic till 1888.) Treaties on the same lines were concluded also with the United States, France and Russia. A revision of the tariff regulations of 1842 was to take place subsequently in the year at Shang-hâi. This was done in October, and then opium was entered among the legitimate articles of import, and the arrangement confirmed that the government should employ a foreign official in the collection of all maritime duties. It might seem that these treaties secured everything which foreign nations could require, and that the humiliation of the Chinese Government was complete. But they were nearly wrecked by one concluding stipulation in all of them but that of the United States, that the ratifications of them should be exchanged *at Peking* within a year. The Emperor and his advisers, when the pressure of the force at Tien-tsin was removed, could not bear the thought of the embassies entering the sacred capital, and foolishly cast about to escape from the condition. The forts at Ta-kû, guard-

Five more ports open.

Treaties with other nations.

An unfortunate stipulation.

The Chinese refuse entrance to Peking.

Repulse of the allies.

Flight of the Emperor.

ing the entrance to the Pei-ho, and the approach to Tientsin and thence to Peking, were rebuilt and strongly fortified. When the English, French, and American ministers returned to Shang-hai with the ratified treaties in 1859, the Chinese commissioners who had signed them at Tien-tsin were waiting for them, and urged that the ratifications should be exchanged there. The French and English ministers then insisted on proceeding to Peking as the place nominated for the exchanges. But when they arrived at the mouth of the river, with the gunboats under their command, they were unable to force the defences. A severe engagement ensued, and the allied forces sustained a repulse with heavy loss. It was the one victory gained by the Chinese. The British and French Governments took immediate action. A third expedition, under the same plenipotentiaries as before, with a force of nearly 20,000 men, was at the same place in little more than a year. The forts were taken on August 21, and on the 25th the plenipotentiaries were again established in Tien-tsin. We can only refer to their march in September on Peking with all its exciting details. The Emperor (Hsien-fung) fled to Jeh-ho, in the north of Chih-lî, the imperial summer retreat; and his brother, Prince Kung, whose name is well known, came to the front in the management of affairs. On the 13th of October he surrendered the northeast gate of the city; on the 24th the treaties were exchanged, and an additional convention signed, by which, of course, an additional

indemnity was exacted from the Chinese, and an arrangement made about the emigration of coolies, which had become a crying scandal, while a small piece of the continent of the Empire, lying opposite to Hong Kong, was ceded to that colony. So it was that the attempt of China to keep itself aloof from the rest of the world came to an end, and a new era in the history of the Empire was initiated.

[In 1840, Louis Napoleon again tries to raise an insurrection at Boulogne. He is captured and condemned to life imprisonment, but escapes in 1846. Napoleon Bonaparte's remains are brought from St. Helena and buried at the Invalides. An English, Austrian, and Turkish fleet bombards Beyrouth and Acre. Mehemet receives Egypt as a hereditary possession, but pays tribute to the Sultan. The penny post is introduced in England. In 1841, New Zealand becomes a separate colony. A massacre takes place at Cabul. The great powers take steps to suppress the slave trade. In 1842, the English retreat from Cabul and the entire army is destroyed in the Khyber pass. The treaty of Nankin ends the Opium War. Five ports are opened to English trade and Hong Kong is ceded. The Sultan annexes Tripoli and Barca. In 1843, Sir Charles Napier forces the Amir of Sind to surrender and to acknowledge British rule in India. In 1844, the Republic of San Domingo is founded. In 1845, there is much distress in Ireland by the failure of *Khyber pass.*

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS A.D. 1839-1860

Texas admitted to the Union.

Troubles in Madagascar

the potato crop. Texas is admitted to the Union as a slave State. The first Maori war breaks out in New Zealand. Christian converts are massacred in Madagascar, and the French and English send an unsuccessful expedition to their aid. Troubles between the Sikhs and the British begin.]

THE DISCOVERY OF THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE

(A.D. 1845-1847)

ALBERT HASTINGS MARKHAM

THE return of the Antarctic expedition in 1843 once more aroused public interest in matters connected with exploration in high latitudes, and this interest was kept alive by the writings and efforts of English men of science and naval officers, who urged the necessity of the continuance of further exploration. In the words of worthy old Master Purchas, who wrote 250 years ago, the discovery of the northwest passage was the only "thing yet undone whereby a notable mind might be made famous."

This long-sought-for passage was at last to be discovered, and the "notable mind" that was to achieve the distinction which the solution of the problem would, according to Master Purchas, entitle him to was no less a person than Sir John Franklin, who had already succeeded in mapping out, by actual personal exploration, a very large portion of the passage. He had, by great

*Revival of
interest in
Arctic ex-
ploration.*

*Sir John
Franklin.*

ability, energy, and indomitable pluck, in spite of unparalleled difficulties and unprecedented sufferings, in a vigorous climate and in an inhospitable and barren country, succeeded in showing to the world at large, that there was no service which Englishmen were not capable of undertaking, and no hardships or privations that would make them waver or flinch in the performance of their duties and in carrying them out to a successful issue.

In fact, Sir John Franklin had written his name with no light or feeble hand in large and unmistakable characters along the entire face of our North Polar map, and he was, even at that time, the actual discoverer of all but a very small portion that yet remained to be explored of the long-talked-of, but yet undiscovered, north-west passage.

*The ships
and their
crews.*

The ships selected for the service were the *Erebus* and *Terror*. They had only recently returned from the service on which they had been engaged under Sir James Ross in the Antarctic, but they had been completely overhauled and thoroughly repaired after the hard buffettings they had received from the southern ice, and were, in consequence, prepared in every way that human skill and ingenuity could devise to undergo similar or even worse treatment from the ice floes of the north. Captain Crozier, who was second in command in the Antarctic expedition, was selected to act in a like capacity to Sir John, and was appointed to the command of his old

ship the *Terror*, while Sir John flew his pennant in the *Erebus*. Commander James Fitzjames, an able, popular, and accomplished officer, was appointed to the *Erebus* as second in command under Franklin. As the principal object of the expedition was the advancement of science, the remainder of the officers were selected as being specially suited by their scientific acquirements, professional knowledge, and robust and vigorous constitutions, for the service on which they were to be employed. Among those appointed was Dr. Goodisir, an eminent naturalist. The complement of each ship was sixty-seven officers and men, making a total of twenty-three officers and one hundred and eleven men—in all, one hundred and thirty-four souls. Stores and provisions were put on board the ships for an anticipated absence of three years. The vessels were also fitted with screws and auxiliary engines, capable of working up to about twenty horsepower. This was the first time that the screw, as a means of propulsion in ships, was ever used in the Arctic Seas, but it was, as may be imagined from the power provided, only to a very limited degree.

*Object
of the
expedition.*

Sir John Franklin's orders were to the effect that he *Franklin's
orders.* was to make the best of his way up Lancaster Sound to the neighborhood of Cape Walker, in about 74° N. latitude, and 98° W. longitude. Thence he was to use his utmost endeavors, by working to the southward and westward, to push on in as direct a line as possible toward Bering's Strait; but much was left to his own dis-

cretion, and he was to be guided by any circumstances that might incidentally arise. All the arrangements being completed, the expedition sailed from England on the 19th of May, 1845, officers and men in the very best of spirits, and all fully resolved to do their utmost to bring the voyage to a successful issue, and so set at rest, and forever, the long-vexed question of the existence of a northwest passage.

On the 10th of July, they parted company with the transport, and sailed from the Whale Fish Islands; on the 26th of July, the two ships were seen made fast to the ice in Melville Bay, in about $74^{\circ} 48' N.$ latitude, and $66^{\circ} 13' W.$ longitude, by Captain Dannet, of the *Prince of Wales*, a whaler from Hull, who received a visit from some of the officers of the expedition; this was, so far as is known, the last time the unfortunate vessels were seen, at any rate by Europeans. After this date, although traces of the missing ships were discovered many years after, all is conjecture, all must be left to the imagination, to complete one of the saddest stories that has ever been told in connection with Arctic enterprise.

*Last sight
of the
ships by
Europeans.*

The ships, we know, pursued their solitary way through Baffin's Bay toward Lancaster Sound. Entering this broad channel, they sailed along the coast of North Devon, continuing their course to the westward; but ice, that unconquerable foe with which the Arctic explorer has to battle, effectually barred the passage, and

prevented further advance in that direction. Wellington Channel, however, to the northward, appeared to be open, and up this they sail, hoping that it may eventually lead in a westerly direction, and carry them into the *Course of the ships.* eagerly sought for passage. But they are doomed to disappointment, for after sailing up this channel for a distance of about 150 miles, they are again stopped by their relentless and implacable enemy, the ice, and are compelled to turn to the southward; but their return is made by a different channel to that up which they sailed, a newly discovered one, which they found to exist, separating Cornwallis and Bathurst Islands, and which ultimately brought them again into Barrow Strait, about one hundred miles to the westward of the entrance to Wellington Channel, up which they had previously sailed.

Unmistakable signs of the closing in of the navigable season were now apparent; the hills and valleys were already covered with their snowy mantle, and the young ice was beginning to form on the surface of the water to such a thickness as to materially impede the progress of the ships. Taking all these circumstances into consideration, and finding that there was no prospect of advancing further to the westward that season, the ships retraced their steps a short distance to the eastward, and were ultimately secured in snug winter quarters in a partially protected harbor on the northeast side of Beechey Island, the adaptability of which as winter quarters had, *Closing of the navigable season.* *In winter quarters.*

in all probability, been remarked and noted by Franklin as he passed up Wellington Channel.

On the release of the ships from their winter quarters, which event, in all probability, did not occur until July or August, a course was shaped to the westward toward Cape Walker, the furthest point reached by them in a westerly direction the previous year. We know well from the records of previous navigators, and also from subsequent experience, that the ice to the westward of Barrow Strait, and in the neighborhood of Cape Walker, is of an exceedingly formidable description. In spite, however, of the ponderous nature of the ice, Franklin persevered in his endeavors to get through, and seeing a channel open to the southward, he pushes into it, for surely, he thinks, it will eventually lead in the right direction. He knew if this channel did not end in a *cul de sac*, and if the ice permitted him to force his ships through, that the last link in the chain would be forged, and the northwest passage would be triumphantly achieved. This channel, separating North Somerset from Prince of Wales Land, is now called Peel's Strait.

All went merrily! Everything pointed to a speedy and successful termination to their voyage. Sailing past the west coast of North Somerset, they fight their way bravely mile by mile, and almost inch by inch, along the coast of Boothia Felix, until they perhaps get a glimpse of King William Land, and almost feel that success is actually within their grasp. But alas! although the dis-

*Cape
Walker.*

*Again
ice-bound.*

tance that intervenes between their ships and absolute success is, perchance, only a little over one hundred miles, their further progress is suddenly arrested, their vessels are caught and held fast in the rigid embrace of the ice, and thus, fast frozen in a solid and impenetrable pack, they are doomed to pass their second winter. Little did the poor fellows then imagine, when they were busily engaged in making the necessary arrangements for passing that winter, that their ships were inextricably frozen in—never again to cleave the blue water of the ocean, never to rise and fall on its heaving billows, never to be released from their icy fetters, until their poor battered hulls are rent and riven by their victorious enemy, the ice.

To winter in the pack is known, happily, only to a few—to pass two successive winters in the ice is an experience that has, fortunately, been vouchsafed to fewer still; yet the brave survivors of the *Erebus* and *Terror* were destined not only to pass one, but two long, weary, successive winters, helplessly beset, and firmly frozen up in their icy bondage.

As the daylight returned King William Land, covered in its white garb of winter, was occasionally seen to the southward. Once past that sterile and dreary-looking coast, and the northwest passage would be accomplished; for they would then, they well knew, connect with Simpson's, Ross's and Back's discoveries; but alas! an ice-encumbered sea intervened, choked with thick-

Winter
in the
ice-pack.

A party explores King William Land.

Graham Gore discovers the northwest passage.

ribbed ice, through which it was impossible to force their heavy, and perhaps seriously damaged, ships.

The summer was not allowed to pass, however, without some attempt at exploration, for, in the month of May, a travelling party was organized and despatched with the object of exploring King William Land. It consisted of two officers and six men, and was commanded by Lieutenant Graham Gore, the first lieutenant of the *Erebus*. The officer that accompanied him was Mr. Charles F. Des Vœux, mate, belonging to the same ship. The party left the ships on Monday, 24th of May, and succeeded in reaching Point Victory on King William Land; thence pushing on toward Cape Herschel they, perhaps, saw in the distance the continent of North America, and realized that the long-sought-for passage had been discovered, and could be easily accomplished if they were but able to force their ships through the short, icy channel that intervened. Depositing a record, containing a brief account of their visit, they hurried back to their ships to impart the joyful tidings to their comrades in order that they also might share in the exultation that they could not help but feeling at having ascertained the successful result of the voyage. The record was simply a few lines written on a printed form supplied to the ships for the purpose of being corked up in a bottle and thrown overboard, with the object of ascertaining the set of tides and currents.

The lines written by Graham Gore on this printed

form were to the effect that the *Erebus* and *Terror* wintered in the ice in latitude $70^{\circ} 5'$ N., and longitude 98° 23' W., having wintered, in 1846-47, at Beechey Island in latitude $74^{\circ} 43' 28''$ N., longitude $91^{\circ} 39' 15''$ W., after having ascended Wellington Channel to latitude 77° , and returned by the west side of Cornwallis Island. It adds, somewhat significantly, that Sir John Franklin was still in command of the expedition, but that all were well. This paper is dated the 28th of May, 1847, and is signed by both Gore and Des Vœux.

On their return to the *Erebus*, they found a scene of sorrow and mourning which, perhaps judging from the somewhat ominous wording of their record, was not wholly unexpected. They found their beloved chief, he who had before, so often and in so many shapes, been face to face with death, stricken down, fighting his last battle with that unconquerable foe to whom the bravest must eventually strike their colors and yield. Sir John Franklin, after a long, honorable, and distinguished career, after a life more eventful and adventurous than usually falls to the lot of man, lay on his death-bed. The end, however, had not yet come, and Sir John Franklin was permitted, before he passed away, to receive from the lips of Graham Gore the announcement that the northwest passage, for the successful achievement of which he sailed from England two years ago, and for which he was now willingly and cheerfully laying down his life, had been discovered, and that he was

*Death of
Sir John
Franklin.*

the man who, by its discovery, had, according to old Purchas, made himself famous.

*Mexican
War.*

*Punjab
annexed.*

[In 1846, the Spanish marriages cause considerable friction between England and France. Austria annexes the Republic of Cracow. War arises between the United States and Mexico over the Texan boundary question. In 1847, Rothschild, the first Jewish M.P., is elected for the city of London. In Switzerland war breaks out; the Sonderbund is routed and dissolved, and the Jesuits are expelled. Gold is discovered in California. In 1848, Chartism is effectually checked in England. Mexico relinquishes Texas, New Mexico, California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming. The second Sikh War breaks out and the Punjab is annexed. Revolutions break out in almost every European country.]

THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA

(A.D. 1847-1849)

JAMES SCHOULER

LUMBERING, tillage of the soil, and ownership of the spacious harbor of San Francisco had been the main objects proposed by the annexation of California to the United States. But another advantage, which threw all these into the shade, was revealed at almost the moment of its formal transfer. It was a land of treasure-trove. Gold, mineral wealth of inestimable worth, lay ready to tempt cupidity, in rock, in crevices, in river beds, the moment these possessions became ours. A century earlier, so runs the story, Jesuits found gold in this region and were expelled in consequence. Minister Thompson's book gave gold and silver a passing mention, while describing the resources of California. Mines nearer the heart of Mexico, which had been lately pledged for the security of British loans, once yielded a handsome return, but forty years of civil disorder left them unproductive. Indeed, since 1810, products of the

*Objects of
the annex-
ation of
California.*

*Discovery
of gold.*

precious ore in both hemispheres had fallen off greatly, though the yield in the New World far excelled that of the Old. Hitherto, however, bowels of gold and silver had belonged to the sicklier races; we, like our hardy English progenitors, had boasted rather of our coal and iron, products for common use. The gold region of the United States, as hitherto defined, lay along the mountains which bordered Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia; and science, capital, and skill, while slavery infected that region, had all been wanting to develop or so much as locate these resources. But now this republic was on the verge of a discovery which would impart a new influence in the civilized world, and give new values and a new impulse to finance and the industrial activities. Had not God guided us? Was not the Union working out some sublime mission of manifest destiny?

Here within one hundred and sixty thousand square miles of our Mexican conquest, within that country alone, west of the Sierras, which was drained by the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, was more gold probably than would pay the cost of our late war a hundred times over. Such was the confident report of our military commandant in California, dated six weeks after peace had been officially proclaimed at Washington; and our President, submitting that report to Congress in its ensuing session with his farewell message, found a new justification of the policy he had pursued toward Mexico.

That splendid and startling discovery was made in fact before the actual conclusion of a treaty with Mexico, and California's dwellers were wild with excitement at the time when distant representatives of the late belligerents ratified the compact of transfer wholly ignorant of the news. Nor did the earth first open her secret to the peering eyes of the American conquerors who occupied the country, but to Captain Sutter, the Swiss lord of the Sacramento, and an American mechanic from New Jersey in his employ, named Marshall. Some miles above Sutter's fort, on the American fork of the Sacramento, a saw-mill was in course of erection for turning some pine forests near by into lumber. Marshall, with a gang of workmen, comprising native Indians and a few white Mormons, was engaged upon the work. While widening and deepening the channel, where water was let on to run the mill, yellow particles were brought down by night, mingled with the loose mud and gravel, which Marshall discovered as he sauntered along the tail-race the next morning. Suspecting the truth, which was confirmed by another night's sluicing, he gathered some of the glittering grains in his pouch, and rode down the stream to Captain Sutter, dismounting at the fort on the afternoon of the 28th. Sutter weighed the ore, applied such tests of science as he could command, ransacked his little library upon the subject, and pronounced the substance gold. From that moment the news of the discovery spread, and men's minds were turned in his little

*Sutter and
Marshall.*

*The rush
for gold.*

*Sutter and
Marshall
fail to
keep their
secret.*

*Crude
mining
methods.*

kingdom from saw-mills, flour-mills, herds, flocks, and all that humbler property which hitherto had absorbed his thoughts and theirs, and to quote Sutter's own expressive phrase,—for he could not ride luck firmly at a break-neck speed,—the curse of the discovery was on him.

Neither Sutter nor Marshall could profit by nature's confidence. They agreed to keep the secret to themselves; and a Mexican grant being of course out of the question by that time, Sutter procured a lease of this region from the Indian natives, and then undertook the more difficult affair of procuring title from the United States. Colonel Mason, the American commandant at Monterey, could give no document; and so far from guarding their joint secret, Sutter and his unwary contractor managed to send the news far and wide, which their humble workmen on the stream had wit enough to ascertain very quickly. Sutter's saw-mill stood unfinished, as hundreds and thousands of laborers pushed by for more congenial work. Within four months of the first discovery over four thousand persons were about the Sacramento, working as if for dear life, dwelling in coarse canvas tents and huts, and coaxing fortune with the rudest implements. Some with bowls, pans, and willow baskets were seen washing out the gravel and separating the shining atoms by the hand; others worked with the pick and shovel; while some, the luckiest of the lot, found places where they could pick gold out of crevices in the moun-

tain rocks with their butcher knives, as they lay upon their backs, in pieces which weighed from one to six ounces.

Fleets of launches, from the sloop to the cockleshell, left San Francisco in early May for the Sacramento saw-mill region, and the town was nearly stripped of its male population in course of the summer. Soon the whole country, from San Francisco to Los Angeles, and from the seashore to the base of the mountains, echoed the cry *The gold fever.* of "Gold, gold, gold!" The house was left half-built, the field half-planted; women looked after the shop. Foreign vessels began to arrive; but before they could unload, their crews deserted for the "diggings." Mexicans, scarcely less than Americans, caught the gold fever, and joined in the headlong rush for riches. And quickly as sails or steam could bear the tidings to different points of the compass, adventurers hastened from China, from the Sandwich Islands, from Australia, and from the whole Pacific coast between Vancouver Island and Valparaiso.

It was not until Lieutenant Loeser reached Washington in person, bearing Colonel Mason's official despatch, that denizens of our Atlantic Slope began to realize the force of our new discovery. A small tea-caddy, which Loeser brought with him, full of the yellow stuff in lumps and dust, was placed on exhibition in the War Department. To see was to believe, and to believe was to set the news flying eagerly. Mason's report, indorsed by

the President, was published and commented upon by the press of two continents.

*The
Argonauts
of 1849.*

*"Ho for
California!"*

*The two
routes.*

The new year witnessed the exodus of our modern Argonauts. A stream of population, swollen beyond all precedent, drained the drifting elements from Europe, to mingle in a current whose American element predominated. Never again was such delirium known, for it is novelty that makes the blood leap wildly. Those lesser discoveries of gold and silver which followed years later in British Australia and through our own Rocky range were tame by comparison. These seekers of the golden fleece are enshrined among the world's heroes. "Ho for California!" was the rallying cry of the press in our Atlantic cities,—their columns teeming with advertisements of gold-sifters, tents, picks, preserved meats, compasses, mining boots, and all other needful supplies; with rifles and pistols to use against one enemy, medicine and medical books against another. "California associations" were hunting up men to charter vessels in company or furnish a line of wagons.

Two modes were open to choice for making the difficult journey: one by the overland route, requiring delay until spring; the other by water, which, though tedious to the last degree, pleased the impatient who wished to get in motion. The long water route lay round Cape Horn; but the short cut across the isthmus looked more attractive on the map. Sailing-vessels for one course or the other had begun departing from Atlantic ports; the

number increasing rapidly with each new month, until old hulks were rigged up and sent to sea as long as they could float, and even the whalers forsook their usual prey to engage in this "new catch." The Pacific Mail Steamship Company had been organized already for general trade with our distant possessions. Its first steamer sailed from New York in the previous October, with not a single passenger on board for California; but after doubling the Horn, turning northward, and reaching Panama in the following January, its captain found fifteen hundred persons frenzied and clamorous to come on board as passengers, of whom scarcely one-thirtieth part could be provided with state-rooms. Steam and sailing-vessels dumped at the isthmus, for many months, on the Caribbean side, their parties of adventurers, who worked across to Panama as best they might, to join in the mad rush from the latter port. As the frantic struggle was here renewed whenever a steamer came in sight, the company disposed of all tickets by lot, and allowed none without them to come on board. Among the disappointed hundreds who were left behind, many embarked upon the slow sailing-vessels which improvised a transit, rather than stay idle on shore, or rashly perilled their lives on long canoes of the natives. Meanwhile, the swift steamship, for its three weeks' trip to San Francisco, was crowded fore and aft; exercise was clogged; sleep grew fitful and feverish; men rushed and wallowed for their food, each table being twice set; while for suc-

The demand for shipping.

Frantic struggle for passage.

cessive days amid this turmoil of monotony the vessel would plow its way through a tranquil sea, as the sun rose and sank pillow'd in a gorgeous sky. Welcome at last was the haven of San Francisco, as it came into view when the vessel curved the bay of the Golden Gate.

*The over-
land route.*

*Wagon
trains.*

But the journey overland,—how much more terrible were its hardships than those even of the long, seven-months' voyage by sailing vessel round the Horn! Tedium is the chief torture of those who trust their lives to a carrier. By ocean travelled those indirect gainers by discovery,—the speculator, the gambler, and all that buzzard and miscellaneous horde who come to bring capital into play or pander to brute passions; many to be useful, many to make others worse. But the Argonauts of the plains were the sturdier set,—the miners or the farmers; and, having little to pay for passage-tickets, these contributed their capital of physical endurance. They made of Fremont's reports their guide-book. They travelled by companies together, both for defence and economy's sake. Wagons, animals, provisions, they purchased by co-operation; and even the penniless had a chance, as drivers or otherwise, to work out a free passage. The perils of those crusaders who took the savage hills of the Gila, or crossed the Great American Desert to Sonora, need not be dwelt upon. These had their terrible tales to relate. But for the northern route of 1849, that great overland highway, Independence, or St. Joseph, Missouri, was the chosen rendezvous; and on this fron-

tier of civilization thousands assembled from the eastward in early spring, with wagon trains, waiting until the grass was high enough before venturing upon the broad ocean of the wilderness. From May to early June company after company set forth, until the emigrant trail from Fort Leavenworth on the Missouri to Fort Laramie at the foot of the Rocky Mountains was one long caravan; and the light of camp-fires shone by night like some unending turnpike of illumination. Tribes of Indians fled, instead of attacking, as the strange line, which comprised pack-mules and every species of wagon, from the "prairie schooner" down to the jaunty pedler's cart, halted in the rich green meadows to enjoy the first and easiest part of the journey. Cholera, which ascended the Mississippi about the time they departed, was their first real scourge; and four thousand or more perished by the roadside from this disease alone. Beyond Fort Laramie that pestilence was escaped, and then came the more immediate hardships of the expedition. Pasturage grew scarce, and the pioneers had to divide into separate trails; subsisting themselves often on nothing more appetizing than the tough meat of their mules or the flesh of noxious rattlesnakes. Up and down stern mountain-peaks, slowly through the South Pass, the toilsome march continued, until the tributaries of the Colorado served as guide. Rest, grateful as on the green spots among Arabian sands, was found in the Mormon settlement of the Salt Lake. Faithful to agriculture and their own vows of isolation,

*The
terrible
hardships.*

*Gains of the
Mormons.*

*The
pioneers
encamp on
the western
side of the
Sierra
Nevada.*

these religious enthusiasts found speedy gain from traffic with the Gentile journeyers. In this fertile valley some emigrants remained the coming winter, dreading to go on; but they who pressed on, strong-hearted, had their worst perils yet to encounter. Through sterile wastes and rugged mountain chasms in the Great Basin, by trails hard to find and still harder to explore, they goaded on their jaded beasts and dragged their own weary bodies; they wandered like sheep, they separated, they went astray. But in August the advance wagons of this first pioneer train began arriving, and by the close of December the last of these overland companies of 1849 had encamped on the western side of the Sierra Nevada; and the great interior wilderness relapsed into its long winter slumber.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1848

W. A. TAYLOR

IN the year 1840, a treaty was made in London between Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, settling the question of the possession of Syria by the Pacha of Egypt, without reference to the acquiescence of France in their decision. This led to violent expressions of feeling on the part of the French people, who believed their nation insulted; the ministry breathed the same spirit, and the King consented to the augmentation of the army to 639,000 men. The plan for the fortification of Paris, as it was called, which had been before rejected by the chambers, was resumed by Thiers among his other preparations for war, and this would seem to have been the only object aimed at by the King in apparently coinciding with the war feeling; for he refused to allow his minister to denounce the treaty of July formally to the chambers, and ask for further war-like preparations. Thiers therefore gave up his portfolio, and a new ministry was appointed, of which the master *Increase of the army.* *Fall of Thiers.*

spirit was Guizot. That statesman continued the fortification of Paris, and coincided fully with the wish of Louis Philippe to preserve the peace of Europe. He remained at the head of the government from 1840 until the Revolution of 1848. By every means in his power he preserved France from European hostilities, brought about an exchange of visits between the sovereigns of England and France, and promoted on all occasions the intrigues of the King for the aggrandizement of the royal family, and its establishment by intermarriages in other courts of Europe. At the same time, his internal government was characterized by pride, tyranny, blindness, and a constant succession of encroachments upon the liberty of the people. During the whole term of his administration the work of fortifying Paris was continued, until the whole city was surrounded by a girdle of fortifications of impregnable strength, the guns of which were expected to serve equally well in repelling a foreign foe and in crushing any revolt in Paris. Secure in the pride of power, Louis Philippe boasted that he held France in his hand, and Guizot ruled on, well contented in the seeming success of his policy, and convinced of the truth of his own saying, that an unpopular government is the most successful.

Fortification of Paris.

Prohibition of a reform banquet.

On the opening of the French chambers in 1848, a paragraph of the address announced the intention of the ministry to oppose the holding of a reform banquet in one of the arrondissements of Paris. The people had been

accustomed to these gatherings, which had always been conducted in a quiet and orderly manner, and all Paris resolved to participate in the one thus opposed, as a demonstration of their determination in the matter. On the eve of the day on which it was to be held the government grew alarmed, and issued a proclamation that it would prevent it *vi et armis*. This was made known to a meeting of the deputies and electors who were to take part in the festival, and they repaired to the chamber to interrogate the ministry upon the subject, where, in an angry debate, they learned the resolution that had been taken. The opposition deputies, anxious to preserve peace, announced their determination to take no part in the celebration, and the government strengthened itself to enforce its decree. The number of the troops was increased to one hundred thousand men, and armed bodies were concentrated about the Chamber of Deputies. Great bodies of people were in motion early upon the day fixed for the banquet, February 22, blocking up the avenues to the chambers, and making offensive demonstrations before the house of the minister. The troops manifested great reluctance to make war upon them, and the day passed over with few occurrences of note, except the impeachment of the minister by Odillon Barrot in the chamber, on behalf of fifty-three opposition deputies.

Military preparations.

During the night the troops demolished the barricades *Barricades.* thrown up by the people during the day, and the morn-

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

ing of the 23d was spent in the erecting and destroying of these works. Shortly after noon a large detachment of the National Guard came to present a petition to the chamber in favor of reform, but they were met by the commander of the Tenth Legion, in the Place de la Concorde, who told them they would not be permitted to pass. As M. Guizot entered the Chamber of Deputies on this day, the Tenth Legion on guard there saluted him with cries of, *A bas Guizot! Vive Louis Philippe!*

At half-past three a conflict commenced between the people and the Municipal Guard; but almost everywhere the National Guard fraternized with the people. A lull was produced by the announcement of the resignation of the ministry, and the appointment of Count Molé to the presidency of the council; but the wanton discharge of musketry upon the people, by the guard assembled before M. Guizot's hotel, by which fifty-two persons were killed or wounded, again aroused the people, and everywhere the cry was heard to arms. The dead bodies were carried about Paris in a vehicle, preceded by an immense crowd, chanting in a mournful murmur the songs of death. Suddenly there arose a cry for vengeance, and the issue of the Revolution was decided. At every corner barricades were erected. Gentlemen, shopkeepers, clerks, workmen, all labored equally and effectively. The dawn of the 24th saw the whole city in possession of the people. The Château d'Eau, a massive stone building in front of the Palais Royal, was garrisoned by 180 Munici-

Resignation of the ministry.

The populace rises.

pal Guards, who attacked the people about the palace, and a desperate conflict ensued, in which the populace suffered severely, but demolished the chateau, chiefly by means of fire.

The victors then rushed to the Tuileries, which was surrounded with thousands of troops, who would not fire upon their brethren. Louis Philippe found that his sceptre had departed, and he attempted, by abdication, to transfer his crown to the Count of Paris, his grandson. The mother of the Count repaired with him to the Chamber of Deputies, where a voice from the public gallery settled the question at once:—"It is too late." The members of the royal family retired, followed by all the royalists in the chamber. Dupont de l'Eure, whose sturdy republicanism in 1830, was not forgotten, was carried to the chair, and a provisional government was proclaimed, amid loud shouts of *Vive la République!*

Louis Philippe had been escorted by a detachment of guards to Neuilly, whence he made his escape in disguise to England. Apprehensions were entertained that his life would be sacrificed to popular fury; but the only cry that arose from the multitude was one of indifferent derision, "Let him go!"

The furniture of the Tuileries was thrown out of the windows and burned, the wines in the cellar distributed among the multitude, the throne carried in procession through the streets, and finally burned on the famous Place de la Bastille, and the royal carriages were burned

*Louis
Philippe
abdicates.*

*Louis
Philippe
flees to
England.*

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

at the Château d'Eau. All this passed directly beneath the notice of long lines of motionless infantry and cavalry. The respect paid to private property was not less remarkable than it was honorable. Several malefactors, caught by the people in stealing, were shot on the spot, and the word "voleur" (thief) fastened upon their bodies.

*The
Republic
established.*

The provisional government was installed at the Hotel de Ville, and at once proclaimed a republic. The Chamber of Peers was immediately abolished, and steps taken to relieve the people of the burden which the overthrow of existing relations was likely to place upon them. Lamartine, Arago, Ledru Rollin, Lamoricière, Garnier Pages, Cavaignac, Decoutrias, with the venerable president, Dupont de l'Eure, composed the provisional government. The first act of the government showed Lamartine to be the master spirit. Every citizen was made an elector, and the qualifications for office were citizenship and the age of twenty-five years. The penalty of death for political offences was immediately abolished. An act for the emancipation of every slave on territory subject to France was ordered to be immediately prepared. On the 4th of March, the victims of the Revolution were solemnly interred, in the presence of nearly half a million of people, at the foot of the monument erected to liberty, and the memory of victims of the three days of July, 1830.

*Interment
of the
victims.*

The earliest occasion was selected by the American

minister at Paris, Mr. Rush, for recognizing the Republic. On the 28th of February he waited upon the provisional government, and formally acknowledged the Republic, in an eloquent speech; hoping that the friendship of the two republics would be co-extensive with their duration. A deputation of American citizens waited upon the provisional government on the 8th of March, tendering them congratulations, and presenting them a flag-staff, with the colors of the two republics united and flowing together. The color was received by M. Arago, in a handsome address on the part of the government, and placed in the Hôtel de Ville.

The people throughout France are united in favor of a republican form of government, and the voice of the Church in favor of the change was heard in every cathedral in France, almost before it was known that the King had quitted its territory. France with one voice has declared in favor of liberty, and not till she relapses into barbarism will tyranny find a foothold upon her soil.

*The United
States of
America
acknowl-
edges the
Republic.*

*The people
and the
Church
unanimous
for liberty.*



THE REVOLUTION OF 1848

W. ALISON PHILLIPS

THE February Revolution in Paris was not the cause of the political upheaval which, in 1848, convulsed Europe from Ireland to the banks of the Danube. It had been preceded by the victory of Liberalism in Switzerland, by the successful revolutions in Naples and Palermo, and by the proclamation of a Constitution in Piedmont. But, flaming out in the very centre of the European system, it was, as it were, the beacon fire which gave the signal for the simultaneous outbreak of revolutionary movements which, though long prepared, might but for this have been detached and spasmodic. The shock of the political cataclysm was felt in the remotest corners of Europe. Republican agitations in Spain and Belgium, Chartist gatherings in England, Fenian unrest in Ireland, seemed for a time to threaten to emulate the revolutionary victories in France. But the true interest of the movements of 1848 was rapidly concentrated in central Europe, wherever Austrian diplomacy and Austrian arms had sought to throw a dam across the

*Influence
of the
February
Revolu-
tion upon
Europe.*

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

advancing tide of National and Liberal sentiment. The history of the Revolutionary movements of 1848 is, in fact, not only in the Austrian Empire itself, but in Germany and in Italy, that of collapse of the Austrian system before the revolutionary forces it had sought to control, and of its marvellous recovery, due to the irreconcilable divisions in the ranks of the forces by which it had been overthrown.

Effect in Austria.

The scandal of the Gallacian rising had been but the most flagrant of a multitude of proofs of the utter bloodlessness of the Austrian administration. From the news of the February Revolution the government of the Hofburg could draw no better moral for the Viennese than the tendency of all constitutional government to degenerate into Communism. But the loyal Austrians were in a mood to accept the risk. "Rather a constitutional hell than an absolutist paradise!" was the cry—and Austria in 1848 was by no means a heaven. The state was on the verge of bankruptcy; and, since no accounts were ever published, the popular imagination painted affairs even worse than they were. The proclamation of the government, calling on the people to rally to the throne, was answered, on March 4, by a run on the banks, and a political would have followed the financial crisis, even without the impulse given to it by events in Hungary.

The news of the downfall of the July Monarchy found the Diet at Pressburg engaged in the discussion of a programme of moderate reform. The effect on the imagina-

tive and excitable Magyars was electric. The cautious policy of conservative change seemed utterly inadequate to the greatness of the crisis; and Kossuth, in his famous speech of March 3, gave voice to the new and wider aspirations of the Magyar race, whose liberties could never be secure so long as the nations beyond the Leitha groaned under absolute rule. "From the charnel-house of the Vienna cabinet a pestilential air breathes on us, which dulls our nerves and paralyzes the flight of our spirit!" Hungary, then, must have a truly national government, with a ministry responsible to the people; and, herself free, must become the guarantee of freedom for all the Austrian races. The effect of this speech in Hungary and beyond was immense. "To replace the bad cement of bayonets and official oppression by the firm mortar of a free Constitution" was an object which appealed to the enlightened sentiment of every race in the Austrian dominions. It was less easy to reconcile conflicting views as to the exact position to be occupied by the various nationalities in this new "fraternization of the Austrian peoples." Hitherto Germanism had formed the basis of the Austrian system, not as a national ideal, but because "it formed a sort of unnatural, mediating, and common element among the contradictory and clamorous racial tendencies." But with the growth of the idea of national unity in Germany itself, Germanism had established a new ideal, having its centre outside the boundaries of the Austrian Empire, and which brought it into

*Kossuth's
speech of
March 3.*

*Effects of
the speech.*

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

direct antagonism with the aspirations of the other races. Between the traditional German ascendancy, strengthened by the new sentiment of a united Germany, and this new doctrine of the fraternization of the Austrian nationalities, a conflict was inevitable.

Revolution in Bohemia and Vienna.

Vienna is aroused.

For the moment, however, the divergent tendencies of the popular ideals were overlooked in the general enthusiasm. It was not in Pressburg only that the spark from Paris had fallen on inflammable material, though the agitation for reform did not at once assume a violent form. In Prague, on March 11, a great meeting convened by the "young Czechs" agreed on a petition to the Crown, embodying Nationalist and Liberal demands; and, on the same day, at Vienna, the Diet of Lower Austria passed an address to the Emperor praying for the convocation of delegates of the provincial Diets to set order into the tangled affairs of the Austrian finances. In this moderate demand of the Diet the government, next day, timidly acquiesced. But the slightest concession from above was perilous in the present temper of the Viennese, roused as they were at last from their "sleep of hibernating beasts." A mob of students and workmen invaded the hall of the Diet; Kossuth's speech was read; its proposals were accepted as the popular programme; and the members of the Diet were forced to lead the crowd in tumultuous procession to the Hofburg, to force from the Government its assent to a petition based on all the catchwords of the Revolution. Not till the mob was

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848

thundering at the door of his cabinet did Metternich believe that the incredible had happened, and loyal Vienna become a second Paris. Hastily placing his resignation in the hands of the Emperor, the old chancellor escaped from the palace and passed into exile.

The effect produced by the news of Metternich's fall was stupendous. It was not that an experienced hand had been suddenly removed from the helm of state. The natural indolence of the chancellor had grown upon him with age, and he was no longer the shrewd statesman of former years. Of his diplomatic talent little survived but his capacity for more or less impressive phrase-making. The ship of the state was no more helpless without than with this pilot. But his name had become associated indissolubly with a system; and just as in 1789, the Fall of the Bastille had been hailed as the symbol of the opening of a new era, so that of Metternich was welcomed in 1848 as marking the collapse of the combination of the reactionary Powers against liberty.

The reaction upon affairs in Hungary was immediate. The centre of political influence was transferred suddenly from constitutional Pressburg to revolutionary Pesth. On March 14, a mass meeting, held in the Hungarian capital, passed the "twelve points," which practically involved the entire remodelling of the old Magyar Constitution on the lines of modern Liberalism; and at the same time a "Committee of Public Safety" was appointed to watch over the interests of the Revolution.

*Fall of
Metternich,
May 13, 1848*

*Revolu-
tion in
Hungary.*

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

*The
"March
Laws."*

*Revolu-
tion in
Bohemia.*

*The Italian
States unite
against
Austria,
March, 1848.*

Kossuth threw himself with ardor into the Radical cause; and the Diet, divided within, and intimidated from without, did no more than register the decrees of the Revolutionary party, hoping to preserve in this way at least the semblance of power. On March 15 were passed those "March Laws" which formed henceforward the basis of the Magyar demands, and exhibited the two-fold tendency of Hungarian Liberalism.

The example of Hungary was speedily followed by Bohemia. The situation here was complicated not only by the antagonism between the aristocratic Estates and the Revolutionary party, but also by that between the Czechs and Germans. The new Constitution took no time in the making, and on April 8 was solemnly proclaimed at Prague.

In Italy, too, it was the news of the fall of Metternich that precipitated the national uprising. This had, it is true, been expected for months; and the Austrian commander-in-chief, Marshal Radetzky, had made preparations for dealing with it. None the less, when, on March 18, the news of the Vienna revolution reached Milan and the Lombards rose, the Austrians were taken by surprise. Radetzky, unable to hold his own in the city, withdrew his troops, and retired on Verona. At last the hour seemed to have come to strike a decisive blow for the emancipation of Italy; and, at the invitation of the Milanese, Charles Albert determined to come to their aid. On March 23, Piedmont formally declared war on Aus-

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848

tria, and the Piedmontese troops crossed the frontier into Lombardy. All Italy seemed at last united in a common enthusiasm for the expulsion of the foreigner. All the governments, either willingly, or coerced by public opinion, sent contingents to fight for the Italian cause. The Neapolitan army marched northward under the command of the veteran Pepe; and even the Pope blessed the standards which were to float in the national army over the soldiers of the Church.

While all Italy was advancing to expel the Austrians from Lombardy, Daniele Manin, on March 22, had, after a bloodless revolution, ousted them from Venice, and proclaimed on the great Piazza the Republic of St. Mark. In the Italian Tyrol, too, an agitation was rising for union with Italy. Threatened from so many sides, and unsupported from the centre, the Austrian rule in Italy seemed doomed; and voices were raised in the councils of the Empire for cutting off the Italian provinces and concentrating the efforts of the Government on the preservation of Austria as a league of federated states. That the Italian provinces were, for a time, preserved to Austria was due to the indomitable character and keen vision of the veteran Radetzky, who saw clearly the numerous elements of weakness on the Italian side, and realized that if Austria were content to wait she would be victorious. But, meanwhile, the conviction which Radetzky had succeeded in impressing on the Vienna Cabinet that the fate of Austria would be decided in Italy, by deplet-

*Piedmont
attacks
Austria.*

*The
Republic
of St. Mark.*

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

ing the north of troops, gave free play to the forces of Revolution.

The Revolution in Germany.

Nowhere was the crippling of the Austrian power more fruitful of results than in Germany. Liberal opinion was organized before the February Revolution; and as early as September 12, 1847, a meeting of representative Liberals at Heppenheim had drawn up a political programme on revolutionary lines. When, therefore, the news of the Revolution in Paris excited popular fervor to fever pitch, the governments of the separate states found themselves powerless, face to face with a united public opinion. Accustomed to look for support to Vienna, the preoccupation of Austria left them helpless, and they had to yield with the best grace possible. As usual, the South was the cradle of the Revolutionary movement, whence it rapidly spread to the smaller states of central Germany. Then suddenly came the news of the Revolution of March 13 in Vienna, and of the fall of Metternich. Prussia at once caught the revolutionary infection. On March 15 barricades began to appear in the streets of Berlin, and the next day a riot was suppressed by the troops with some loss of life. The King, kind-hearted and agonized at being at odds with his beloved Berliners, realizing, too, that the collapse of Austria had made impossible the plans for the reform of the Confederation which he had been negotiating at Vienna, consented to open negotiations with the Liberal leaders on the basis of German "nationality," accepted the

Revolution in Berlin.

greater part of Gagern's programme and summoned the united Diet for April 3, with a view to discussing the Constitution. Next day, on March 18, a great crowd surrounded the palace. Its demeanor on the whole was loyal enough, but certain less reputable elements in it raised seditious cries, and the King ordered the courtyard to be cleared. In course of doing this a couple of shots were fired, intentionally or by accident. Instantly the loyal crowd was turned into a revolutionary mob. Cries of "Treason!" were raised and a sanguinary battle began between citizens and soldiery. It would now have been easily possible to crush the Revolution; and had the King been capable of a politic severity, Prussia could have taken in 1848 the position which it cost her two sanguinary wars to achieve; for no Power, least of all Austria, was in a position to dispute her assumption of the leadership of Germany.

Street
fighting.

For the moment, indeed, the German movement was as little under the control of Prussia as of Austria. The revolutionary forces were in the ascendant; and even the Diet was carried away by their impulse, hoisted the German tricolor, and on March 30 gave its consent to the convocation of a German National Parliament. The general constitution of this body had already been decided by the National Convention, which had met, on the initiative of the Liberal leaders, without any authorization from the governments. This was now accepted by the Diet in the name of the German princes,

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

*German
Parliament
opened,
May 18, 1848.*

*Austria
and the
reaction.*

and on May 18 the first German National Parliament met at Frankfort. Thus scarce two months after the fall of Metternich, the Revolution was to all appearance everywhere triumphant. But in the very ease and completeness of the triumph lay the seeds of failure. The conflicting elements of the Liberal forces which, in a more bitter and protracted struggle, might have learned to bear and forbear, had no stomach for compromise, in view of the utter collapse of the common foe. Extremists and moderates alike overestimated the defeat of the reactionary Powers, and fell to quarrelling over the spoils before the victory had been rendered really secure. The reactionary Powers had, in effect, been taken by surprise, and stunned rather than crushed. Austria especially, after the first staggering blows, was beginning to show signs of unexpected vitality; and it was recognized that, as her collapse had made the success of the revolutionary movements possible, so her recovery would involve their ultimate failure. Two things contributed mainly to the surprising power of resistance of Austria —her imperial tradition and her army. The former saved the crown of the Hapsburgs from going under in the chaos of national rivalries within their own dominions, and by casting its spell over the deliberations of the German Parliament and the mind of the King of Prussia, postponed for eighteen years the creation, at Austria's expense, of a united Germany. The latter, shaped in the mold of an iron discipline, and for the most part un-

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848

touched by revolutionary or nationalist sentiment, once released from its entanglement in Italy, would form a formidable weapon in the hands of the reaction. With the fortunes of Italy, then, those of the revolution were bound up.

[In 1850, the Pope arouses great indignation by appointing Catholic Bishops to English sees. California is admitted to the Union as a free State; and a severe fugitive slave law is passed. The great Tai Ping rebellion breaks out in China. In Australia, Victoria is separated from New South Wales. In 1851, Palmerston is dismissed for approving of the French *coup d'état* without consulting the Cabinet or Queen of England. The first submarine cable is laid between Dover and Calais. Austrian troops occupy Holstein. Gold is discovered in New South Wales. The Great Exhibition is opened in Hyde Park.]

Tai Ping
rebellion.

First sub-
marine
cable laid.

THE GREAT EXHIBITION

(A.D. 1851)

SIR THEODORE MARTIN

96
IN the celebrated Frankfort Fairs of the Sixteenth Century may be found the germ of the Industrial Exhibitions of our own era. Of what these were, the great Greek scholar, Henri Estienne, has left an animated description in his *Franco fordicense Emporium*, published in 1574. "So great," he says, "and so diversified is the wealth of this market, that it in a manner comprises all others within itself, and they seem to be derived from it as rivers from their source, and as Rome was formerly called the Compendium of the World, so, methinks, I should speak within bounds were I to say that the Fair of Frankfort ought to be called the Epitome of all the Markets of the World."¹ All the industrial products of Europe, those that ministered not only to the necessities but also to the refinements of life—books, pictures, sculpture, tapestry, the masterpieces of the

*The Frank
fort Fairs
of the
Sixteenth
Century.*

¹ In a letter, dated May 15, 1851, from the Chevalier Bunsen to Max Müller, he says: "The Exhibition is and will remain the most poetical event of our time, and one deserving a place in the world's history."

armorers', the goldsmiths', and the jewellers' art—were drawn together to this convenient commercial centre from all parts of the Continent of Europe. Every invention in machinery that could make one pair of hands do the work of many, or do work better than had been done before, was sure to find its way there. It was a field where ingenuity of all kinds was certain of recognition. Great machines or simple devices to make domestic life easier or more comfortable were equally welcome. Estienne turns away from the mention of "machines of exceeding ingenuity and worthy of Archimedes himself, and numberless instruments adapted for use in the different arts," to speak with admiration of an invention for roasting, which would supersede the services of a human turnspit.

*Estienne's
description.*

*The first
French
Exhibitions.*

The French were the first to adopt the idea of bringing together great public collections of works of art and industry with a view to the improvement of both. Exhibitions of this nature were held on a very considerable scale in Paris, in 1798, the sixth year of the first Republic, and again in 1801, 1802, 1806, 1819, 1823, 1827, 1834, 1844, and 1849. Our own Society of Arts held several Exhibitions of the same kind upon a smaller scale. These had produced very beneficial results in raising the quality of our manufactures; and it seemed to the Prince that the time had come, when an Exhibition might be attempted, which would afford the means of showing what every country was able to produce in the

shape of raw materials, in machinery and mechanical inventions, in manufactures, and also in sculpture, in plastic art, and generally in art as applied to manufactures. Such an Exhibition, if successfully carried out, could not fail to produce results of permanent benefit in many ways. To put the argument for it on the lowest grounds, it would enable the active spirits of all nations to see where they stood, what other nations had done and were doing, what new markets might be opened, what new materials turned to account, how they might improve their manufacturing processes, and what standards of excellence they must aim at in the general competition which steam and railroads, it was now seen, would before long establish throughout the whole world.

At a meeting at Buckingham Palace, on the 30th of July, 1849, the Prince propounded his views to four of the most active members of the Society of Arts—Mr. Thomas Cubitt, Mr. Henry Cole, Mr. Francis Fuller, and Mr. John Scott Russell. He had already settled in his own mind the objects of which the Exhibition should consist; and in these no material change was subsequently made. The Government, with whom the Prince had previously taken counsel, had offered the area within Somerset House for the purposes of the Exhibition. This was obviously too contracted, and various other sites were suggested; but that in Hyde Park, which was ultimately used, was proposed by the Prince, even thus early, as affording advantages "which few other places

*The Prince
propounds
his views.*

might be found to possess." It was, accordingly, resolved to apply for it to the proper authorities; and the application met with the approval of the Government.

*Sounding
the manu-
facturers.*

*The Great
Exhibition
projected.*

*Banquet
at the
Mansion
House,
March 21,
1850.*

The first step to be taken manifestly was to ascertain whether such an Exhibition would be regarded with favor by the great body of manufacturers throughout the kingdom. Mr. Cole, Mr. Fuller, and Mr. Digby Wyatt undertook the necessary inquiries. They were soon able to report—the two former coming to Balmoral for the purpose—that the idea was taken up with warm interest wherever they went, and that no jealousy or distrust was likely to lead to the withholding from the Exhibition any of the great discoveries in industrial machinery, which were especially looked to as likely to give distinctive value to the Exhibition. Means were taken to enlist the sympathies of our Colonies, and the East India Company were among the first to promise their active assistance. Communications were also opened with the Continental States; since upon the way they viewed the scheme much of its success would necessarily depend. In such matters a strong example does much, and this was set by France.

The time had now come for the Prince to place before the world, in his own words, his conception of the scope and purpose of the proposed Exhibition. The opportunity for doing so was afforded by a banquet given, upon a magnificent scale, at the Mansion House, on the 21st of March, to which the chief officers of State, the

Foreign Ambassadors, the Royal Commissioners for the Exhibition, and the chief magistrates of more than two hundred towns had been invited. The Prince had by this time accustomed the public to expect much from his addresses; but in broad and comprehensive grasp of view, and in condensed fulness and vigor of expression, none of them was superior to the speech which he now made. The prospect which it shadowed out of the great family of man, drawn together by the bond of mutual helpfulness and enlightened emulation of the arts of civilized life, had been the dream of poets and sages. No one knew better than the Prince, profoundly versed as he was in the history of the past, and still more in the stormy politics of the present, that this must long continue to be a climax seen only in prophetic vision of the throes and struggles of the human race, and that the halcyon days of universal peace were certainly not to be looked for in the present epoch, nor it might be for many generations to come. But his eminently practical genius saw that the time had arrived to give such an impulse toward this desirable result, as might greatly accelerate its arrival, and that it was from England this impulse might most fitly come. "England's mission, duty, and interest," he had written to Lord John Russell, on the 5th of September, 1847, "is to put herself at the head of the diffusion of civilization and the attainment of liberty." She might lose some of her material advantages by teaching other nations the arts and meth-

*The
Prince's
foresight.*

ods by which she had developed her internal resources and commanded the markets of the world. She might draw upon herself a competition in these markets, which might otherwise have long been postponed. But the same energy, the same intellectual activity which had put her in the van of nations, the Prince believed would enable her to hold her place under any alteration of circumstances. In any case, whatever might be said by detractors of her insular narrowness and selfishness, he understood her people too well to doubt that they would see with pleasure the spread throughout the world of the blessings which they had conquered for themselves, and be content to run even considerable risks in accelerating that better understanding of each other, without which the unity of mankind is impossible. The general satisfaction created by the parts of his speech now to be quoted, showed that in this estimate of British feeling he had not been mistaken:—

His belief.

*The
Prince's
speech.*

“I conceive it to be the duty of every educated person closely to watch and study the time in which he lives, and, as far as in him lies, to add his humble mite of individual exertion to further the accomplishment of what he believes Providence to have ordained.

“Nobody, however, who has paid any attention to the peculiar features of our present era, will doubt for a moment that we are living at a period of most wonderful transition, which tends rapidly to accomplish that great end, to which, indeed, all history points—*the realization*

of the unity of mankind. Not a unity which breaks down the limits and levels of the peculiar characteristics of the different nations of the earth, but rather a unity the *result and product* of those very national varieties and antagonistic qualities.

"The distances which separated the different nations and parts of the globe are rapidly vanishing before the achievements of modern invention, and we can traverse them with incredible ease; the languages of all nations are known, and their acquirement placed within the reach of everybody; thought is communicated with the rapidity, and even by the power, of lightning. On the other hand, the *great principle of the division of labor*, *Division of labor.* which may be called the moving power of civilization, is being extended to all branches of science, industry, and art.

"While formerly the great mental energies strove at universal knowledge, and that knowledge was confined to the few, now they are directed on specialties, and in these, again, even to the minutest points; but the knowledge acquired becomes at once the property of the community at large; for, while formerly discovery was wrapped in secrecy, the publicity of the present day causes that no sooner is a discovery or invention made than it is already improved upon and surpassed by competing efforts. The products of all quarters of the globe are placed at our disposal, and we have only to choose which is the best and the cheapest for our purposes, and

Competition and capital.

the powers of production are intrusted to the stimulus of *competition and capital*.

"So man is approaching a more complete fulfilment of that great and sacred mission which he has to perform in this world. His reason being created after the image of God, he has to use it to discover the laws by which the Almighty governs his creation, and by making these laws his standard of action, to conquer nature to his use; himself a divine instrument.

*Science,
industry,
and art.*

"Science discovers these laws of power, motion, and transformation; industry applies them to the raw matter, which the earth yields us in abundance, but which becomes valuable only by knowledge. Art teaches us the immutable laws of beauty and symmetry, and gives to our productions forms in accordance to them.

*Effect of the
Exhibition.*

"Gentlemen—the Exhibition of 1851 is to give us a true test and a living picture of this point of development at which the whole of mankind has arrived in this great task, and a new starting-point from which all nations will be able to direct their further exertions.

"I confidently hope that the first impression which the view of this vast collection will produce upon the spectator will be that of deep thankfulness to the Almighty for the blessings which he has bestowed upon us already here below; and the second, the conviction that they can only be realized in proportion to the help which we are prepared to render each other; therefore, only by

peace, love, and ready assistance, not only between individuals, but between the nations of the earth."

The shock of delighted surprise which every one felt on first entering the great transept of Sir Joseph Paxton's building was a sensation as novel as it was deep. Its vastness was measured by the huge elms, two of the giants of the past, which rose far into the air with all their wealth of foliage, as free and unconfined as if there were nothing between them and the open sky. The plash of fountains, the luxuriance of tropical foliage, the play of colors from the choicest flowers, carried on into the vistas of the nave by the rich dyes of carpets and stuffs from the costliest looms, were enough to fill eye and mind with a pleasure never to be forgotten, even without the vaguest sense of what lay beyond in the accumulated results of human ingenuity and cultivated art. One general effect of beauty had been produced by the infinitely varied work of the thousands who had separately co-operated toward this marvellous display and the structure in which it was set by its graceful lines and the free play of light which it admitted, seemed to fulfil every condition that could be desired for setting off the treasures thus brought together.

Beautiful at all times, the sight which the transept presented on the opening day, with its eager crowds raised row upon row, with the toilets of the women and the sprinkling of court costumes and uniforms, added to its permanent features was one which men grew eloquent

*Beauty
of the
transept.*

in describing. As the eye rested on the rich and varied picture, the first thought that rose was one of gratitude to the Prince, as he stood there looking with his accustomed air of modest calm upon the splendid fulfilment of what two years before he had foreseen in thought.

*Congratula-
tions.*

*Number
of people
assembled.*

Lord John Russell, fresh from the scene, could not refrain from congratulating "the Queen on the triumphant success of the proceedings of this day. Everything went off so well," he continued, "that it is needless to mention particulars; but the general conduct of the multitude assembled, the loyalty and the content which so generally appeared, were perhaps the most gratifying to a politician, while the wonders of art and industry will be the most celebrated among philosophers and men of science, as well as among manufacturers and the great mass of the working people." Besides the 25,000 people within the building itself, it was calculated that nearly 700,000 people were assembled on the route between it and Buckingham Palace, yet Sir George Grey was able to report next day to the Queen that there had not been one accident, one police case, due to this assemblage.

MODERN INVENTIONS

ROBERT MACKENZIE

26
IFTY years after James Watt gave his steam engine to the world, the wind was still the only motive power at sea, and men still depended upon the horse to convey themselves and their productions on land. The large dimensions which the manufactures of the country had now attained called for greater facility of transport. The canal-boat or the carrier's cart, moving at its leisurely two or three miles an hour, was inadequate to the requirements of a traffic which was growing with unexpected rapidity. The mail-coach, which at its best could traverse no more than two hundred miles in twenty-four hours, laid a debilitating restraint upon that free personal intercourse which is so essential in the conduct of business enterprises. More easy and speedy transport of men and commodities was again demanded, and the steam engine was the agency by which it was to be supplied.

*Demand
for greater
facilities of
transport.*

The idea of the steamship is older than the idea of the steam-carriage. In the Sixteenth Century, some forgotten

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

*Boats
driven
by steam.*

genius made a feeble and fruitless attempt to apply steam to navigation. The imperfect mechanical skill of that early time was unable to give embodiment to so high a conception. A century later (1736), a patent was actually taken for a boat which was to be driven by steam. Toward the close of the century, a small steamer was sailing on a loch in Dumfriesshire at the speed of seven miles an hour. In 1807, a steamer, devised by Fulton, sailed up the Hudson from New York to Albany. After the crowning success of that voyage, steam navigation grew apace. A little later there were steamboats on the Clyde, and steamboats plying from Glasgow to London, and from Holyhead to Dublin. In 1838, the Atlantic was crossed by steamers. Then the final triumph of steam was assured, and the distant places of the earth were bound together by a new and closer tie than they had known before.

*Land com-
munication.*

But still, while steam had become a moving power by river and sea, the land communications of all countries were maintained by the agency of the horse. From the earlier years of the century a steam carriage was the dream of mechanicians. Men of inventive genius, withdrawing themselves from the vain and bloody enterprise which then absorbed the national care, sought to find an adequate mechanical embodiment for the splendid conception of steam locomotion. Many efforts, partially successful, were made, culminating, at length, in the final triumph of George Stephenson. The engine constructed

MODERN INVENTIONS

by Stephenson for the Liverpool and Manchester Railway solved all doubts, silenced all objections, and inaugurated victoriously one of the grandest of industrial revolutions.

Still more remarkable was the growth among the people of a disposition to travel. During the early portion of the century, men had scarcely the means to go from home beyond such trivial distance as they were able to accomplish on foot. Human society was composed of a multitude of little communities, dwelling apart, mutually ignorant, and therefore cherishing mutual antipathies. At once the cause of separation were withdrawn. Men of different towns, of different countries, were permitted freely to meet; to learn how little there was on either side to hate, how much to love; to establish ties of commercial relationship; to correct errors of opinion by friendly conflict of mind. The dormant love of travelling, by which nature protects men from the evils of isolation, wakened into life so vehement that, in 1875, the railways conveyed six hundred million passengers. Ancient prejudice melts away under the fuller knowledge gained by this extended acquaintance. Peculiarities of dialect, of manners, of belief, grow indistinct, and the unity of the people becomes every year more perfect.

*Growth
of a dis-
position
to travel.*

But a still more wonderful mastery over the secrets of nature was now to crown the patient researches of science, and yet more closely to unite the scattered fami-

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

*Tele-
graphic
communi-
cation.*

lies of men. It was found that the same mysterious and terrible power which flashes out of the heavens in storm was ready to traverse continent and sea with the speed of thought, bearing the messages which men desired to convey to each other. After many experiments, with constantly growing success, a line of telegraph was constructed on the Blackwall Railway and used for the transmission of railway signals. A little later the telegraph was taught to print the messages which it bore. The railway companies hastened to construct telegraphs beside their lines, at first for their own purposes only, but soon for those of the public also. The uses of this marvellous invention spread with rapidity, and soon extended across the sea. Dublin was connected with London; Dover with Calais. In a short time there followed the bold conception of stretching an electric pathway in the depths of the Atlantic, and uniting Europe with America. Ere long all civilized countries were thus connected. Across all lands and seas, the mysterious agency which man had subjugated obediently carried his commands.

*State
ownership.*

In England, the State acquired, by purchase, all telegraphs, and so extended the system, that soon every village in the kingdom enjoyed the inestimable privilege of instantaneous communication with every part of the inhabited globe.

This use of electricity possesses for us an interest especial and unique. It is the first human invention which is obviously final. In the race of improvement, steam

MODERN INVENTIONS

may give place to some yet mightier power; gas may be superseded by some better method of lighting. No agency for conveying intelligence can ever excel that which is instantaneous. Here, for the first time, the human mind has reached the utmost limit of its progress.

The union of distant localities by railway and telegraph quickened the interest which men felt in the concerns of each other, and awakened an incessant thirst for news. The weekly journals, which had hitherto satisfied the desires of the limited number who cared to read them, were now utterly insufficient. It became necessary that the daily history of the world should be compiled, in such hasty manner as might be possible, and printed every morning in newspapers. It was further indispensable that these newspapers should be cheap, and yet of high intelligence and literary excellence. The abolition of the tax which had hitherto fettered newspapers, and, in a few years more, the abolition of the tax on paper, made both of these things possible. The price of nearly all newspapers was reduced to one penny,—a charge so low that even poor men could afford the indulgence of a daily paper. From these circumstances there resulted an increase of newspaper circulation which there are no means to compute, but which we know to be enormous. With increased revenues came a higher excellence of literary workmanship, and a consequent increase of influence over the minds of men. Every morning the same

*The
growth of
the news-
paper.*

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

topics are presented to all minds, generally with moderation and intelligence, often with consummate skill. These topics furnish themes of thought and conversation for the day. Public opinion, which is now the governing power of the Empire, is thus formed, expressed, intensified, and guided to the discharge of the great function which it has assumed.

The enormous increase of the demand for newspapers rendered it indispensable that swifter methods of printing should be found. From the date of its invention down to the close of 1814, there had been almost no improvement on the printing press. A rude machine, yielding at its best no more than 150 copies per hour, was still universally employed. In 1814, the *Times* set up a press of German construction, worked by steam, and giving 1,100 copies per hour. Many years passed without further notable improvement. The urgent necessity arose for more rapid printing. By various steps we have at length attained to machines which satisfy every requirement. A machine, driven by steam, is fed with huge rolls of paper, and gives out newspapers, cut and folded, at the rate of 25,000 copies per hour. A simple process of stereotyping makes it easy to supply from one set of types an indefinite number of such machines.

It has always been of prime interest to men—savage or civilized—to evoke the heat which lies hid everywhere in nature, and kindle it into flame. Possibly the care which was taken to keep lights continually burning in

The steam printing press.

Methods of kindling.

MODERN INVENTIONS

certain heathen temples, and around which religious sanctions ultimately gathered, had its remote origin in the experienced difficulty of kindling light. But never was any widespread and urgent human want so imperfectly supplied. The earliest method of obtaining fire was by the friction of two pieces of dried wood. The next was the striking together of steel and flint. These two rude methods of obtaining the indispensable assistance of fire have served man during almost the whole of his career. Only so recently as about the time of the first Reform Bill has he been able to command the services of a more convenient agency.

The elements which compose this agency come from afar. Pine trees are brought from Canada or Norway, and cut by powerful and delicate machinery into innumerable little pieces. Sulphur, cast up by volcanic action from the depths of the earth, is brought from Sicily. The bones of innumerable generations of wild cattle are collected on the vast plains of South America, and the chemistry of Europe extracts phosphorus from them. The little pieces of pine wood, dipped in phosphorus and sulphur, form matches, which burst into flame on the slightest friction. So perfect is the machinery employed, that a few workmen produce matches by millions in a day. So cheap, consequently, is the price, that the wholesale dealer buys eight hundred for one penny.

*The
sulphur
match.*

Long after the power-loom had entered upon its

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

The sewing- machine.

career, and cloth was woven by machinery, nothing better than hand labor had been found for sewing the cloth so produced into the forms required for human use. The poor needle-women of London still slaved during as many hours as they were able to keep awake, and received a daily sixpence or eightpence in requital of their toil. But at length an American mechanic invented a machine which could sew as much as six needle-women. The capabilities of this invention were promptly appreciated, and much attention was given to its improvement. In course of years there were twenty different machines, with an annual sale of millions. So highly were the powers of the sewing-machine developed, that it could be driven at the rate of three thousand stitches per minute. The demand for sewing increased with a rapidity altogether unexpected. The starving needle-woman ceased to be one of the scandals of civilization. In her place came the machine-girl, with her moderate hours of labor and her comfortable wages.

Growth of mechanical skill.

Mechanical skill is a growth of the Nineteenth Century. A great mechanic states that in the beginning of the century the human hand performed all the work that was done, and performed it badly. James Watt was nearly baffled in getting the first model of his engine made. His cylinder could not be bored; it could only be rudely shaped out under the hammer, and it leaked so abominably that steam could scarcely be kept on the engine. The roughly-fitted machine emitted a "horrible

MODERN INVENTIONS

noise" as it moved. But the great inventions of the day called imperiously for more perfect tools and higher excellence of mechanical execution. Nor did they call in vain. In due time there came a race of great mechanicians, whose task it was to create a suitable embodiment for the conceptions of the inventors. Bramah, of the patent lock, was the first to construct machines for working in iron. He could not, without such help, attain the requisite precision in making the parts of his lock. One of his pupils was Maudslay, who devised the fixed slide-rest. Another was Clements, who made the first planing-machine. Nasmyth followed, with his steam-hammer. Whitworth raised incalculably the standard of mechanical precision by inventing a machine which detects variations of the one-millionth part of an inch. Innumerable contrivances followed for shortening processes of labor and obtaining accurate results. In half a century a vast, although comparatively unnoticed, revolution had been accomplished. Machinery had superseded the human hand. The workman was no longer the maker of any piece of work. He was merely the director of a machine, which produced its results with swiftness and precision infinitely superior to his own.

Down almost to the close of last century the British farmer cultivated the soil according to methods which had changed little for ages. The alternation of crops was unknown. No means had been found of restoring to the soil, by manuring, the elements of which the plant had

First
machines
for working
in iron

Labor-
saving
machines.

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

Improvements in agriculture.

deprived it. A field exhausted by frequent repetition of the same crop was suffered to lie waste for an indefinite period, till nature restored the expended capability. Drainage was practiced, but on a scale as limited, and in a form as rude, as those which were in use among the Romans. The water which soaked the ground caused the crops to ripen late, diminished their quantity and impaired their quality; it stunted the growth of cattle; it diffused ague and intermittent fevers among men. The implements of the farmer were of the most primitive type. His plow was a rude structure, which only scratched the surface of the ground. The sower went forth to sow equipped as he had been in Palestine eighteen centuries ago. The ripened grain was cut by means of the ancient reaping-hook. The "thresher's weary flingin'-tree," so painfully celebrated by Burns, still formed the sole agency by which grain was separated from straw.

Improved drainage.

In 1823, Smith, of Deanston, taught a system of deep drainage, which was rapidly adopted. It yielded larger and earlier crops, and promoted the health both of man and beast. So well was the value of this improved drainage appreciated, that, in 1846, Parliament offered a loan of £4,000,000, to be expended on drains. Science was now enlisted in the service of the farmer. The nature of the plants which it was his business to rear was carefully studied, and the food which conduced best to their growth was ascertained. Agricultural societies collected

MODERN INVENTIONS

and compared the experience of observant farmers, and published it for the general good. Machinery was applied to sowing and threshing. In 1852, a machine for reaping was offered to farmers, and accepted with prompt appreciation. Three years later a plow drawn by steam was in use. Steam tillage turned up the soil to a greater depth than had been possible before, and was, therefore, more effective in the production of bountiful crops. It was not only better; it was, to an important extent, less expensive.

Steam tillage better and less expensive.

THE SECOND REPUBLIC AND
THE SECOND EMPIRE
IN FRANCE

(A.D. 1850-1852)

RICHARD LODGE

After the suppression of the socialist rising of June, 1848, Cavaignac had carried on the government of France with almost perfect tranquillity. The Assembly proceeded with its work of drawing up a Constitution for the Republic. The legislative power was intrusted to a single chamber of 750 members chosen by manhood suffrage. All parties agreed to place the executive power in the hands of a president. The chief discussion arose on the question whether the president should be chosen by the Assembly or by the nation, but ultimately it was decided that he should be elected by universal suffrage for four years. The subordination of the president to the Assembly was strongly asserted, but no means were suggested for enforcing it. It was a hazardous experiment to create two powers both having an independent origin, without any pro-

*The new
Constitu-
tion.*

*Louis
Napoleon
elected
President.*

vision to avert a deadlock between them. But, for the moment, future dangers were forgotten and men's minds were absorbed in the approaching election, which was fixed for December 10. The republican candidate was Cavaignac, who had given conclusive proofs of his honesty and of his ability to rule. His most formidable rival was Louis Napoleon, who had been elected in September by five departments. This time no opposition was made to his return to France, and he took his seat as deputy for the department of the Seine. Little was known of him but the futile conspiracies of Strasburg and Boulogne, but his name was a charm to conjure with. Thanks to Thiers and other writers, the memory of the first Napoleon had come to be almost worshipped in France. The peasants and soldiers believed that the rule of another Napoleon would secure their prosperity and their glory. The Orleanists also supported him, in the belief that they could use him as their instrument to effect the restoration of the July monarchy, but events proved that their confidence in his incapacity was ill-founded. From the first commencement of the voting, the result was a foregone conclusion. The recorded votes numbered nearly seven millions and a half. Of these, Louis Napoleon received 5,434,226, and Cavaignac only 1,434,107. On December 20, the President took the prescribed oath to observe the Constitution, and entered upon his official residence in the palace of the Elysée.

From the first, Louis Napoleon made it his aim to

abolish the Republic and to revive the Empire. In complete contrast to Louis Philippe, who had relied upon the middle class, he sought support from the peasants, the army, and the priests. The expedition to Rome, under Oudinot, was intended as a bribe to the soldiers and the Church. The Constituent Assembly, having completed its work, was dissolved, and a new legislative assembly met in Paris on May 26, 1849. The elections gave evidence that the republicans had lost the confidence of the people. The opposition consisted of about 120 extreme democrats under the lead of Ledru-Rollin, and they revived the old revolutionary title of the "Mountain." The failure of Oudinot's first attack on Rome gave occasion for a rising in Paris in June. But the troops, under Changarnier, speedily put down disorder, and the movement of reaction was strengthened. Ledru-Rollin fled to London. Several of the republican journals were suppressed, and a new law was introduced to shackle the press. In October, the President dismissed his ministers, who were too constitutional for his tastes, and filled their places with more obscure but more docile instruments.

To a certain extent, the President and the majority of the Assembly pursued common objects. Both were hostile to the Republic; but while the latter wished to restore a constitutional monarchy, Louis Napoleon scarcely troubled to conceal his despotic inclinations. As long as they could work together, the progress of reac-

*Napoleon's
enormous
majority.*

*Rising
in Paris.*

The suffrage is restricted.

Preparations for an Empire.

tion was rapid. The *parti de l'ordre*, headed by Thiers, Broglie, Molé, and Montalembert, determined to avert the dangers threatened by universal suffrage. After a stormy debate, in which Thiers excited the fury of the "Mountain" by speaking of "*la vile multitude*," they carried their proposal restricting the suffrage to citizens domiciled for three consecutive years in the same commune (May 30, 1850).

As the period of his presidency was running out, and the Constitution prohibited his re-election, it became necessary for Louis Napoleon to take active measures to secure his power. As his designs became more and more apparent, the Assembly began to show distrust and hostility. In January, 1851, General Changarnier was dismissed from the command of the Paris garrison and the National Guard, apparently because his regiments had not raised the cry of *Vive l'Empereur!* at the recent reviews. The Assembly declared its confidence in the general and its want of confidence in the ministry. This compelled the retirement of the ministers, but their successors were equally docile to the President, and equally unacceptable to the legislature. Petitions, got up by Napoleon's agents, poured in from the provinces to demand a revision of the Constitution, but the requisite majority of votes in the Assembly could not be obtained, and the project was dropped. Napoleon now determined to throw himself upon the support of the people. The Assembly had made itself very unpopular by the law of

May 30, 1850, which had reduced the number of electors by three millions. The ministers proposed the repeal of the law, but the majority refused to give up their measure. Thus the President posed as the champion of democratic liberties against an oligarchical and reactionary Assembly. At last Louis Napoleon considered that his time had come, and fixed December 2, the anniversary of Austerlitz, as the date for the long-meditated *coup d'état*.

The necessary preparations had been carefully made by Napoleon's agents, M. de Morny, Generals St. Arnaud and Magnan, and M. de Maupas, the prefect of police. On the night of the 1st, while suspicions were lulled by a grand party at the Elysée, the troops were distributed, and the necessary placards and proclamations were printed at the government press. The first blow was struck by the imprisonment of the most dangerous opponents. Generals Cavaignac, Changarnier, Lamoricière, Bedeau, together with Thiers, Victor Hugo, and Eugène Sue, were simultaneously seized in the middle of the night and dispersed to different prisons. In the morning, proclamations appeared in all the streets announcing that the National Assembly was dissolved, that a new election was to take place on December 14, that universal suffrage was restored, and that Paris and the department of the Seine were in a state of siege. A new ministry was announced, in which Morny was Minister of the Interior; St. Arnaud, of War; M. *The new ministry.*

The Coup d'État.

*The new
Constitu-
tion
adopted.*

Rouher, of Justice; and M. Fould, of Finance. In an "appeal to the people," Louis Napoleon proposed that the executive head of the government should be chosen for ten years, and that a Council of State, a Senate, and a Legislative Assembly should be created on the model of his uncle's Constitution of the 18th Brumaire. Meanwhile, about 250 deputies met in the Palais Bourbon, and were preparing a protest against the action of the President, when the hall was surrounded by troops, and they found themselves prisoners. By this act, the opposition was deprived of any common centre of union. Isolated revolts took place on the next two days, and the usual barricades were erected, but the troops gained an easy victory, though not without considerable bloodshed. By the evening of the 4th, the success of the *coup d'état* was secured. The *plébiscite* was commenced on December 20, and resulted in an enormous majority in favor of the new Constitution. The number of recorded votes was 7,439,216 to 646,757. The result of this vote was that Napoleon became President for ten years, and the chief constitutional checks upon his power were removed.

Like all restored princes, Louis Napoleon was an imitator. On December 2 he had closely copied the 18th Brumaire; his Constitution, which was formally issued on January 15, returned to the system of the first Napoleon; the uncle had been Consul, the nephew was President. To complete the external parallel, it was only

necessary to get rid of the republican title by reviving the Empire; and it was certain that this would not long be delayed. The gilt eagles were restored to the standards; Napoleon's name was substituted for that of the Republic in the public prayers; the National Guard was reconstituted; the President took up his residence in the Tuilleries. In the autumn, Louis Napoleon made a grand tour through the provinces, and was everywhere received with shouts of *Vive l'Empereur!* The same cry was raised by the troops on his return to the capital. The Senate was directed to discuss the matter, and it was decided once more to have recourse to a *plébiscite*. The proposal was that Louis Napoleon should be chosen hereditary Emperor of the French, with the right of settling the succession among the members of his family. It was carried without discussion by 7,824,129 to 253,-145. So far universal suffrage had shown itself sufficiently favorable to despotism. On December 2, 1852, the new Emperor was proclaimed as Napoleon III.

The Empire was accepted in Europe without hostility, but without enthusiasm. The governments which had just recovered from the shock of 1848 welcomed it as a defeat of the Revolution. The Czar, the patron of legitimacy, was, as usual, the last to acknowledge the new government of France. In France itself the *coup d'état* had annihilated all opposition. The educated classes were hostile to despotism, but they were overawed by a system of espionage that made the utterance of heedless words

Universal
suffrage
decides for
the Empire.

Revival of prosperity.

a crime. A great revival of material prosperity followed the restoration of order, and the ardent pursuit of money-making proved an excellent salve for political discontent. The Constitution of January, 1852, was renewed with a few modifications, which increased the power of the Emperor, and further humiliated the *corps législatif*. To fuse the two branches of the House of Bourbon, the Comte de Chambord (Henry V.) adopted the Comte de Paris; but the royalists continued to be harmless, and the people resented the treatment of the French crown as the property of a family. The government adopted the economical fallacy that unproductive expenditure is beneficial to the laborers. Great part of Paris was pulled down to make room for more magnificent buildings. The Rue de Rivoli was extended almost to the Faubourg St. Antoine, and thus was demolished the labyrinth of lanes which formerly surrounded the Hotel-de-Ville, and made it always liable to a surprise. The court was revived on the most magnificent scale, and the expenditure on pomp and festivities was enormously increased after the Emperor's marriage. The first duty of the founder of a new dynasty was to marry. Napoleon began by looking round for a princess; but he found the established dynasties so cool in response to his overtures that he determined to conciliate democratic prejudices by an alliance with a subject. His choice fell upon Donna Eugénie di Montijo, the daughter of a Spanish general who had fought under Napoleon I., and the marriage

Improvements in Paris.

Napoleon's choice of a wife.

was solemnized in January, 1853. The Empress Eugénie became the model for fashionable ladies, and her example did much to encourage that lavish extravagance which distinguished, and at last discredited, the second Empire.

France was once more subject to the absolute rule of an individual, and the character of that individual was one of the riddles of the age. Napoleon's personal courage was indisputable, but it was combined with invincible procrastination. No advice could turn him from his purpose, but no one could predict the moment when he would carry it out. He could not endure opposition, and he surrounded himself with clerks rather than with ministers. Men like Guizot and Thiers refused to serve him, and he could never have tolerated their superiority. His early training had been that of a conspirator, and a conspirator he remained when he had attained the throne. There is little doubt that in his youth he had been mixed up in the plots of secret societies, and the associations then formed never ceased to hamper him. He was always afraid that any treachery to his old allies would lead to his assassination, and this fear had much to do with directing his policy toward Italy. He was a socialist in possession of absolute power, but he had to conciliate the established dynasties, which hated and dreaded socialism. Hence the apparent vacillation of his policy and the secrecy which always shrouded his designs. He was naturally indolent and averse to business; he would trust no one to do his work for him, and thus

*Character
and policy
of Napo-
leon III.*

*Secret of
his vacil-
lation.*

his administration was always defective. His ability was considerable, but it was the ability of an imitator. He had none of the original genius of his great uncle, and none of his power of choosing the best instruments. Nothing but the excessive dread of a new revolution could have kept him in power so long. The domestic history of France is almost a blank in his reign. To divert men's minds from the degradation and corruption of his rule, he adopted a vigorous foreign policy and became the firebrand of Europe. The French had been so accustomed to excitement for the last few years that they could not live without it. Napoleon fully comprehended this, and bribed his subjects with magnificent fêtes at home, and aggressive wars abroad.

*England
recognizes
the Trans-
vaal.*

*Perry
opens
Japan.*

[In 1852, Montenegro and Herzegovina rebel against Turkey. England recognizes the independence of the Transvaal, and annexes the valley of the Irawaddy from Burmah. In 1853, the Czar proposes to England to partition the Turkish Empire. On refusal he orders the Sultan to recognize him by treaty as the official protector of the Christians in the Turkish dominions. The Russians occupy Moldavia and Wallachia, and Turkey declares war. England and France come to Turkey's aid. The Russians destroy the Turkish fleet at Sinope. English and French fleets enter the Black Sea, and the Russian fleet retires to Sebastopol. Commodore Perry forces the Shôgun to open Japan to American trade.]

THE OPENING OF JAPAN

(A.D. 1853-1854)

FRANCIS OTTIWELL ADAMS

DURING the long period of peace which succeeded the establishment of the Tokugawa dynasty of shôguns, the intrigues against it on the part of jealous and ambitious daimios (and such there doubtless were from time to time, especially in connection with the Court at Kioto) had so far failed, and the shôgun of the day, or his officials, virtually ruled the empire from Yedo.

*Failure of
intrigues
against the
Tokugawa
shôguns.*

But the advent of foreigners changed the complexion of affairs, and gave an additional impetus to the machinations of the daimios, who chafed under the usurpation of the greatest among them, and of those members of the Court party who were their allies. Indeed, when the foreigner appeared on the scene, everything was already ripe for a revolution in the old style, and for the substitution of a fresh dynasty for the worn-out Tokugawa dynasty. And it is now quite evident that the imperfect government of the shôgun was not adapted

*Signature
of treaties
a death-
blow to the
shôgunate.*

to the new order of things which succeeded the signing of treaties with foreign nations. It is essential for the reader to understand that, from the moment those treaties came into force, the fall of the shôgunate became a mere question of time, and that nothing could have saved it. As far as the establishment of commercial and friendly relations of a permanent nature with Europe and the United States was concerned, the sooner it was abolished the better. It was not the *supreme* power, and yet in its dealings with other powers and their representatives it pretended to be so. Hence, as will be seen, perpetual subterfuges and a daily resort to small tricks for the purpose of keeping up the delusion, and of preventing foreigners from becoming aware of this important fact (which, however, could not long be concealed) that he, to whom the treaties and the diplomatic agents had accorded the title of "Majesty," had no right to be so styled, and was not the Emperor of Japan.

*The shô-
gun or
"Tycoon"
not the
temporal
sovereign.*

Although this fact is now patent to every one, many foreigners clung with curious obstinacy, even up to a late date, to the false idea that the "Tycoon" was the *temporal* sovereign of the country, and that he would soon "return to power," as they were wont to express what they would have found difficult to explain or define.

We now come to the first years of foreign intercourse. And in considering them we shall derive much assistance from the Blue Books presented to Parliament, and

from some native productions, especially one called *Genji yumé monogatari* (the story of the dream of *Genji*), which gives a narration of various occurrences from 1850 to 1864, and attributes the origin of the fight in Kioto, which occurred in the latter year, to the circumstances of the arrival of foreigners in Japan after the long period of non-intercourse.

The different attempts of foreigners of various nations to break through the isolation in which Japan had persisted since the expulsion of the Christians are recorded in the last chapters of Hildreth's *Japan as it Was and Is*. None but Dutch were allowed a footing in the country, and they were still confined to the small island of Déshima, off Nagasaki. The Government of the United States, however, determined to make one more attempt to establish intercourse with the Japanese, and as the humoring policy of the naval officers who had previously visited the coast had not proved successful, it was decided to despatch an envoy with a naval force sufficient to ensure him a respectful hearing. Of this expedition Commodore Matthew G. Perry was selected as head, and he finally set sail toward the end of 1852, furnished with a letter from President Fillmore to the Emperor of Japan, and with instructions to conclude a treaty. The objects of the treaty were declared in a letter dated November 2, 1852, from the State Department to the Secretary of the Navy, as follows:

“1. To effect some permanent arrangement for the

*The United
States'
expedition
under Com.
modore
Perry.*

Objects of
the treaty
desired.

protection of American seamen and property wrecked on those islands, or driven into their ports by stress of weather.

"2. The permission of American vessels to enter one or more of their ports, in order to obtain supplies of provisions—water, fuel, etc.—or, in case of disasters, to refit so as to enable them to prosecute their voyage. It is very desirable to have permission to establish a dépôt for coal, if not on one of the principal islands, at least on some small uninhabited one, of which it is said there are several in their vicinity.

"3. The permission to our vessels to enter one or more of their ports, for the purpose of disposing of their cargoes by sale or barter."

Arrival off
Uraga in
July, 1853,
with four
ships of war.

Perry's
squadron.

Account
from the
Genji yumé
monogatari.

Commodore Perry proceeded by way of Madeira and the Cape of Good Hope to Hong Kong and Shanghai, and ultimately in July, 1853, arrived off Uraga, at the entrance of the passage leading to Yokohama and Yedo. His squadron consisted of the steam frigates *Susquehanna* and *Mississippi*, and the sloops of war *Plymouth* and *Saratoga*. The further accounts of his narrative, as taken from the official documents printed by order of the United States Senate, will be found in Mr. Hildreth's book. I will here follow the *Genji yumé monogatari*.

It was in the summer of 1853 that, as the author states, an individual named Perry, who called himself the envoy of the United States of America, suddenly arrived at Uraga in the province of Sagami with four ships of

war, declaring that he brought a letter from his country to Japan, and that he wished to deliver it to the sovereign. The governor of the place, Toda Idzu no kami, much alarmed by this extraordinary event, hastened to the spot to inform himself of its meaning. The envoy stated, in reply to questions, that he desired to see a chief minister, in order to explain the object of his visit, and to hand over to him the letter with which he was charged. The governor then despatched a messenger on horseback with all haste to carry this information to the castle of Yedo, where a great scene of confusion ensued on his arrival. Fresh messengers followed, and the Shôgun Iyéyoshi, on receiving them, was exceedingly troubled, and summoned all the officials to a council. At first the affair seemed so sudden and so formidable that they were too alarmed to open their mouths, but in the end orders were issued to the great clans to keep strict watch at various points on the shore, as it was possible that the "barbarian" vessels might proceed to commit acts of violence. A learned Chinese scholar was sent to Uraga, had an interview with the American envoy and returned with the letter, which expressed the desire of the United States to establish friendship and intercourse with Japan; and said, according to this account, that if they met with a refusal, they should commence hostilities.

Thereupon the shôgun was greatly distressed and again summoned a council. He also asked the opinion

*Confusion
at Yedo.*

*Conflicting
opinions.*

of the daimios. "The assembled officials were exceedingly disturbed, and nearly broke their hearts over consultations which lasted all day and all night. The nobles and retired nobles in Yedo were informed that they were at liberty to state any ideas they might have on the subject, and although they all gave their opinions, the diversity of propositions was so great, that no decision was arrived at. The military class had during a long peace neglected military arts; they had given themselves up to pleasure and luxury, and there were very few who had put on armor for many years. So that they were greatly alarmed at the prospect that war might break out at a moment's notice, and began to run hither and thither in search of arms. The city of Yedo and the surrounding villages were in a great tumult; in anticipation of the war which seemed imminent, the people carried off their valuables and furniture in all directions, in order to conceal them in the houses of friends living further off, and there was such a state of confusion among all classes that the governors of the city were compelled to issue a notification to the people, and this in the end had the effect of quieting the general anxiety. But in the castle never was a decision further from being arrived at, and while time was being thus idly wasted, the envoy was constantly demanding an answer. So at last they decided that it would be best to arrange the affair quietly, to give the foreigners the articles they wanted, and to put off sending an answer to the letter;

General alarm.

to tell the envoy that in an affair of such importance to the State no decision could be arrived at without mature consideration, and that he had better go away; that in a short time he should get a definite answer. The envoy agreed, and, after sending a message to say that he should return in the following spring for his answer, set sail from Uraga with his four ships.

The Shôgun Iyéyoshi had been ill since the commencement of the summer, and had been rendered very anxious about this sudden and pressing affair of the outer barbarians. Perhaps it was this cause which now made his illness so severe that he died on the 22d day of the seventh month. The assembled retainers entirely lost their heads, and both high and low were plunged into the deepest grief. He was buried in Zôjôji, and received the title of Shintoku-in.

The death of the Shôgun at this particular crisis was at least suspicious. He was succeeded by his son, Iyésada, thirteenth of the Tokugawa line.

Early in 1854 Commodore Perry returned, and the question of acceding to his demands was again hotly debated. Eventually the Treaty was concluded on the 31st of March, 1854. Three copies, signed by the Japanese Commissioners, were delivered to Commodore Perry, and he gave to them in exchange three copies in English, signed by himself, with Dutch and Chinese translations. The ports of Shimoda, in the province of Idzu, and of Hakodaté, in the island of Yezo, were opened for the

*It is
agreed to
temporize.*

*Death of
the Shôgun
Iyéyoshi.*

*Provisions
of the
Treaty.*

reception of American ships, to be supplied with such articles as wood, water, provisions, and coal. There were stipulations with respect to the treatment of shipwrecked men; there was an article giving facilities for trading, a favored nations' clause, and an article providing for the appointment by the Government of the United States of consuls or agents to reside in Shimoda, provided that either of the two governments deemed such arrangements necessary.

*Admiral
Stirling's
convention.*

In this year, Admiral Sir James Stirling arrived with a squadron, and concluded a convention with Japan, by which Nagasaki and Hakodaté were to be opened to British ships for repairs, supplies, etc.

THE CRIMEAN WAR

(A.D. 1854-1856)

JUSTIN McCARTHY

ENGLAND, then, and France entered the war as allies. Lord Raglan, formerly Lord Fitzroy Somerset, an old pupil of the Great Duke in the Peninsular War, and who had lost his right arm serving under Wellington at Waterloo, was appointed to command the English forces. Marshal St. Arnaud, a bold, brilliant soldier of fortune, was intrusted by the Emperor of the French with the leadership of the soldiers of France. The allied forces went out to the East and assembled at Varna, on the Black Sea shore, from which they were to make their descent on the Crimea. The invasion of the Crimea, however, was not welcomed by the English or the French commander. It was undertaken by Lord Raglan out of deference to the recommendations of the Government; and by Marshal St. Arnaud out of deference to the Emperor of the French. The allied forces were, therefore, conveyed to the southwestern shore of the Crimea, and effected a landing in

*England
and France
allies.*

*Landing of
the forces.*

*Battle of
the Alma.*

*Success not
followed up.*

Kalamita Bay, a short distance north of the point at which the river Alma runs into the sea. Sebastopol itself lies about thirty miles to the south; and then more southward still, divided by the bulk of a jutting promontory from Sebastopol, is the harbor of Balaklava. The disembarkment began on the morning of September 14, 1854, and was effected without any opposition from the Russians. On September 19, the allies marched out of their encampments and reached the Alma about noon on September 20. They found that they had to cross the river in the face of the Russian batteries armed with heavy guns on the highest points of the hills or bluffs, of scattered artillery, and of dense masses of infantry which covered the hills. The Russians were under the command of Prince Mentschikoff. The soldiers of the Czar fought stoutly and stubbornly as they have always done; but they could not stand up against the blended vehemence and obstinacy of the English and French. The river was crossed, the opposite heights were mounted, Prince Mentschikoff's great redoubt was carried, the Russians were driven from the field, the allies occupied their ground; the victory was to the Western Powers. The first field was fought, and we had won.

The Russians ought to have been pursued. But there was no pursuit. Lord Raglan was eager to follow up the victory; but the French had as yet hardly any cavalry, and Marshal St. Arnaud would not agree to any further enterprise that day. Lord Raglan believed that he ought

not to persist; and nothing was done. Except for the bravery of those who fought, the battle was not much to boast of. But it was the first great battle which for nearly forty years our soldiers had fought with a civilized enemy. The military authorities and the country were well disposed to make the most of it. The gallant medley on the banks of the Alma, and the fruitless interval of inaction that followed it, were told of as if the men were speaking of some battle of the gods. Very soon, however, a different note came to be sounded. The campaign had been opened under conditions differing from those of most campaigns that went before it. Science had added many new discoveries to the art of war. Literature had added one remarkable contribution of her own to the conditions amid which campaigns were to be carried on. She added the "special correspondent." Therefore, while the fervor of delight in the courage and success of our army was still fresh in the minds of the public at home, while every music-hall was ringing with the cheap rewards of valor in the shape of popular glorifications of our commanders and our soldiers, the readers of the *Times* began to learn that things were faring badly indeed with the conquering army of the Alma. The hospitals were in a wretchedly disorganized condition. Stores of medicines and strengthening food were decaying in places where no one wanted them or could well get at them, while men were dying in hundreds among our tents in the Crimea for lack of them. The system of

*The
"Special
Corre-
spondent."*

Incompetent war administration.

clothing, of transport, of feeding, of nursing—everything had broken down. The special correspondent of the *Times* and other correspondents continued to din these things into the ears of the public at home. Exultation began to give way to a feeling of dismay. The patriotic anger against the Russians was changed for a mood of deep indignation against our own authorities and our own war administration. It soon became apparent to every one that the whole campaign had been planned on the assumption of our military authorities here at home—we do not speak of the commanders in the field—that Sebastopol was to fall like another Jericho, at the sound of the war-trumpets' blast.

Russian defence measures.

Our commanders in the field were, on the contrary, rather disposed to overrate than to underrate the strength of the Russians. It is very likely that if a sudden dash had been made at Sebastopol by land and sea, it might have been taken almost at the very opening of the war. But the delay gave the Russians full warning; and they did not neglect it. On the third day after the battle of the Alma, the Russians sank seven vessels of their Black Sea fleet at the entrance of the harbor of Sebastopol, and the entrance of the harbor was barred as by sunken rocks against any approach of an enemy's ship. There was an end to every dream of a sudden capture of Sebastopol. The allied armies moved again from their positions on the Alma to Balaklava, which lies south of the city, on the other side of a promontory, and which has

a port which might enable them to secure a constant means of communication between the armies and the fleets. Sebastopol was but a few miles off, and preparations were at once made for an attack on it by land and sea. On October 17 the attack began. It was practically a failure. The fleet could not get near enough to the sea-forts of Sebastopol to make their broadsides of any real effect because of the shallow water and the sunken ships; and, although the attack from the land was vigorous and was fiercely kept up, yet it could not carry its object.

The Russians attacked the allies fiercely on October 25, in the hope of obtaining possession of Balaklava. The attempt was bold and brilliant; but it was splendidly repulsed. Never did a day of battle do more credit to English courage, or less, perhaps, to English generalship. The cavalry particularly distinguished themselves. It was, in great measure, on our side a cavalry action. It will be memorable in all English history as the battle in which occurred the famous charge of the Light Brigade. Owing to some fatal misconception of the meaning of an order from the Commander-in-Chief, the Light Brigade, 607 men in all, charged what has been rightly described as "the Russian army in position." Of the 607 men, 198 came back. Long, painful, and hopeless were the disputes about this fatal order. The controversy can never be wholly settled. The officer who bore the order was one of the first who fell in the onset. All Europe, all the world, rang with wonder and admiration of the

*Attack on
Sebastopol
a failure.*

*Battle of
Balaklava.*

*"Charge of
the Light
Brigade."*

futile and splendid charge. The Poet Laureate sang of it in spirited verses. Perhaps its best epitaph was contained in the celebrated comment ascribed to the French General Bosquet, and which has since become proverbial, and been quoted until men are wellnigh tired of it—"It was magnificent, but it was not war."

Next day, the enemy made another vigorous attack on a much larger scale, moving out of Sebastopol itself, and were again repulsed. On November 5, the Russians made another grand attack on the allies, chiefly on the British, and were once more splendidly repulsed. The plateau of Inkerman was the principal scene of the struggle. It was occupied by the Guards and a few British regiments, on whom fell, until General Bosquet with his French was able to come to their assistance, the task of resisting a Russian army. This was the severest and the fiercest engagement of the campaign. Inkerman was described at the time as the soldiers' battle. Strategy, it was said everywhere, there was none. The attack was made under cover of a dark and drizzling mist. The battle was fought for a while almost absolutely in the dark. There was hardly any attempt to direct the allies by any principles of scientific warfare. The soldiers fought stubbornly a series of hand-to-hand fights, and we are entitled to say that the better men won in the end.

*Battle of
Inkerman.*

The winter was gloomy at home as well as abroad. The news constantly arriving from the Crimea told only

of devastation caused by foes far more formidable than the Russians—sickness, bad weather, bad management. The Black Sea was swept and scourged by terrible storms. The destruction of transport-ships laden with winter stores for our men was of incalculable injury to the army. Clothing, blanketing, provisions, hospital necessaries of all kinds, were destroyed in vast quantities. The loss of life among the crews of the vessels was immense. A storm was nearly as disastrous in this way as a battle. On shore the sufferings of the army were unspeakable. The tents were torn from their pegs and blown away. The officers and men were exposed to the bitter cold and the fierce stormy blasts. Our soldiers had, for the most part, little experience or even idea of such cold as they had to encounter this gloomy winter. The intensity of the cold was so great that no one might dare to touch any metal substance in the open air with his bare hand under the penalty of leaving the skin behind him. The hospitals for the sick and wounded at Scutari were in a wretchedly disorganized condition. They were, for the most part, in an absolutely chaotic condition as regards arrangement and supply. In some instances medical stores were left to decay at Varna, or were found lying useless in the holds of vessels in Balaklava Bay, which were needed for the wounded at Scutari. The medical officers were able and zealous men; the stores were provided and paid for so far as our government was concerned; but the stores were not brought

Devastation and suffering.

Severities of the Russian winter.

Lack of medical stores.

*Blunders
and
confusion.*

*Florence
Nightingale.*

to the medical men. These had their hands all but idle, their eyes and souls tormented by the sight of sufferings which they were unable to relieve for want of the commonest appliances of the hospital. The most extraordinary instances of blunder and confusion were constantly coming to light. Great consignments of boots arrived, and were found to be all for the left foot. Mules for the conveyance of stores were contracted for and delivered, but delivered so that they came into the hands of the Russians and not of us. Shameful frauds were perpetrated, in the instance of some of the contracts for preserved meat. The evils of the hospital disorganization were happily made a means of bringing about a new system of attending to the sick and wounded in war, which has already created something like a revolution in the manner of treating the victims of battle. Mr. Sidney Herbert, horrified at the way in which things were managed in Scutari and the Crimea, applied to a distinguished woman, who had long taken a deep interest in hospital reform, to superintend personally the nursing of the soldiers. Miss Florence Nightingale was the daughter of a wealthy English country gentleman. She had chosen not to pass her life in fashionable and æsthetic inactivity; and had from a very early period turned her attention to sanitary questions. She had studied nursing as a science and a system; had made herself acquainted with the working of various Continental institutions; and about the time when the war broke

out she was actually engaged in reorganizing the Sick Governesses' Institution in Harley Street, London. To her Mr. Sidney Herbert turned. He offered her, if she would accept the task he proposed, plenary authority over all the nurses, and an unlimited power of drawing on the government for whatever she might think necessary to the success of her undertaking. Miss Nightingale accepted the task, and went out to Scutari accompanied by some women of rank like her own, and a trained staff of nurses. They speedily reduced chaos into order; and from the time of their landing in Scutari there was at least one department of the business of war which was never again a subject of complaint. The spirit of the chivalric days had been restored under better auspices for its abiding influence. Sidney Herbert, in his letter to Miss Nightingale, has said that her example, if she accepted the task he proposed, would "multiply the good to all time." These words proved to have no exaggeration in them. We have never seen a war since in which women of education and of genuine devotion have not given themselves up to the task of caring for the wounded. The Geneva Convention and the bearing of the Red Cross are among the results of Florence Nightingale's work in the Crimea.

But the siege of Sebastopol was meanwhile dragging heavily along; and sometimes it was not quite certain which ought to be called the besieged, the Russians in the city or the allies encamped in sight of it. During

Her fine work.

Miseries of the siege.

some months the armies did little or nothing. The commissariat system and the land transport system had broken down. The armies were miserably weakened by sickness. Cholera was ever and anon raging anew among our men. Horses and mules were dying of cold and starvation. The roads were only deep, irregular ruts filled with mud; the camp was a marsh; the tents stood often in pools of water; the men had sometimes no beds but straw dripping wet; and hardly any bed coverings. Our unfortunate Turkish allies were in a far more wretched plight than even we ourselves. The authorities who ought to have looked after them were impervious to the criticisms of special correspondents and unassailable by Parliamentary votes of censure.

Meanwhile new negotiations of peace, set on foot under the influence of Austria, had been begun at Vienna, and Lord John Russell had been sent there to represent the interests of England. We had got a new ally in the little kingdom of Sardinia, whose government was then under the control of one of the master-spirits of modern politics, Count Cavour. Sardinia went into war in order that she might have a *locus standi* in the councils of Europe from which to set forth her grievances against Austria. The policy was singularly successful, and entirely justified the expectations of Cavour. The Crimean War laid the foundations of the kingdom of Italy. But there was another event of a very different nature, the effect of which seemed at first likely to be

Sardinia
enters the
war.

all in favor of peace. On March 2, 1855, the Emperor Nicholas of Russia died of pulmonary apoplexy, after an attack of influenza. A cartoon appeared in *Punch*, which was called "General Fevrier turned Traitor." The Emperor Nicholas had boasted that Russia had two generals on whom she could always rely, General Janvier and General Fevrier; and now the English artist represented General February, a skeleton in Russian uniform, turning traitor and laying his bony, ice-cold hand on the heart of the sovereign and betraying him to the tomb. But indeed it was not General February alone who doomed Nicholas to death. The Czar died of broken hopes; of the recklessness that comes of defeat and despair. He took no precautions against cold and exposure; he treated with a magnanimous disdain the remonstrances of his physicians and his friends. The news of the sudden death of the Emperor created a profound sensation in England. At first there was, as we have said, a common impression that Nicholas's son and successor, Alexander II., would be more anxious to make peace than his father had been. But this hope was soon gone. The new Czar could not venture to show himself to his people in a less patriotic light than his predecessor. The prospects of the allies were at the time remarkably gloomy. There must have seemed to the new Russian Emperor considerable ground for the hope that disease, and cold, and bad management would do more harm

*Death of the
Emperor
Nicholas.*

*Gloomy
prospects of
the allies.*

to the army of England at least than any Russian general. The Conference at Venice proved a failure.

*Death
of Lord
Raglan.*

The operations in the Crimea were renewed with some vigor. The English army lost by the death of its brave and manly Commander-in-Chief, Lord Raglan. He was succeeded by General Simpson, whose administration during the short time that he held the command was at least well qualified to keep Lord Raglan's memory green and to prevent the regret for his death from losing any of its keenness. The French army had lost its first commander long before—the versatile, reckless, brilliant soldier of fortune, St. Arnaud. After St. Arnaud's death the command was transferred for a while to General Canrobert, who resigned in favor of General Péliissier. The Sardinian contingent had arrived, and had given admirable proof of its courage and discipline. On August 16, 1855, the Russians, under General Liprandi, made an unsuccessful effort to raise the siege of Sebastopol by an attack on the allied forces. The Sardinian contingent bore themselves with stubborn bravery in the resistance, and all Northern Italy was thrown into wild delight by the news that the flag of Piedmont had been carried to victory over the troops of one great European Power, and side by side with those of two others. It was the first great illustration of Cavour's habitual policy of blended audacity and cool, far-seeing judgment. The siege had been progressing for some time with considerable activity. The Malakoff

*Gallantry
of the
Sardinians.*

tower and the Mamelon battery in front of it became the scenes and objects of constant struggle. The Russians made desperate night sorties again and again, and were always repulsed. On June 7, the English assaulted the quarries in front of the Redan, and the French attacked the Mamelon. The attack on both sides was successful; but it was followed on the 18th of the same month by a desperate and wholly unsuccessful attack on the Redan and Malakoff batteries. On September 5, the allies made an attack almost simultaneously upon the Malakoff and the Redan. The French got possession of the Malakoff, and the English then at once advanced upon the Redan; but the French were near the Malakoff; the English were very far away from the Redan. The distance our soldiers had to traverse left them almost helplessly exposed to the Russian fire. They stormed the parapets of the Redan despite all the difficulties of their attack; but they were not able to hold the place. The attacking party were far too small in numbers; reinforcements did not come in time; the English held their own for an hour against odds that might have seemed overwhelming; but it was simply impossible for them to establish themselves in the Redan, and the remnant of them that could withdraw had to retreat to the trenches. It was only the old story of the war. Superb courage and skill of the officers and men; outrageously bad generalship. The attack might have been renewed that day, but the English Commander-in-Chief, General Simpson, resolved

*Assault
of the
Redan and
Malakoff
batteries.*

*Retreat of
the British.*

The Russians fire Sebastopol.

not to make another attempt till the next morning. Before the morrow came there was nothing to attack. The Russians withdrew during the night from the south side of Sebastopol. A bridge of boats had been constructed across the bay to connect the north and the south sides of the city, and across this bridge Prince Gortschakoff quietly withdrew his troops. The Russian general felt that it would be impossible for him to hold the city much longer, and that to remain there was only useless waste of life. But, as he said in his own despatch, "It is not Sebastopol which we have left to them, but the burning ruins of the town, which we ourselves set fire to, having maintained the honor of the defence in such a manner that our great-grandchildren may recall with pride the remembrance of it and send it on to all posterity." It was some time before the allies could venture to enter the abandoned city. The arsenals and powder-magazines were exploding, the flames were bursting out of every public building and every private house. The Russians had made of Sebastopol another Moscow.

With the close of that long siege, which had lasted nearly a year, the war may be said to have ended. The brilliant episode of Kars, its splendid defence and its final surrender, was brought to its conclusion, indeed, after the fall of Sebastopol; but, although it naturally attracted a peculiar attention in this country, it could have no effect on the actual fortunes of such a war. Kars was defended by General Fenwick Williams, an English

Fall of Kars.

officer, who held the place against overwhelming Russian forces, and against an enemy far more appalling —starvation itself. He had to surrender at last to famine; but the very articles of surrender to which the conqueror consented became the trophy of Williams and his men. The garrison were allowed to leave the place with all the honors of war; and, "as a testimony to the valorous resistance made by the garrison of Kars, the officers of all ranks are to keep their swords." The war was virtually over. Austria had been exerting herself throughout its progress in the interests of peace, and after the fall of Sebastopol she made a new effort with greater success. France and Russia were indeed now anxious to be cut out of the struggle almost on any terms. If England had held out, it is highly probable that she would have had to do so alone. For this indeed Lord Palmerston was fully prepared as a last resource, sooner than submit to terms which he considered unsatisfactory. The Congress of Paris opened on February 26, 1856, and on March 30 the treaty of peace was signed by the plenipotentiaries of the Great Powers. Prussia had been admitted to the Congress, which therefore represented England, France, Russia, Austria, Prussia, Turkey, and Sardinia.

*End of
the war.*

*Congress
of Paris.*

By the treaty Kars was restored to the Sultan, and Sebastopol and all other places taken by the allies were given back to Russia. The Great Powers engaged to respect the independence and territorial integrity of Turkey. The Sultan issued a firman for ameliorating

*Terms of
the settle-
ment.*

the condition of his Christian subjects, and no right of interference, it was distinctly specified, was given to the other Powers by this concession on the Sultan's part. The Black Sea was neutralized; its waters and its ports were thrown open to the mercantile marine of every nation, and formally and in perpetuity interdicted to the flag of war either of the Powers possessing its coast or of any other Power, with the exception of the right of each of the Powers to have the same number of small armed vessels in the Black Sea to act as a sort of maritime police and to protect the coasts. The Sultan and the Emperor engaged to establish and maintain no military or maritime arsenals in that sea. The navigation of the Danube was thrown open. Moldavia and Wallachia, continuing under the suzerainty of the Sultan, were to enjoy all the privileges and immunities they already possessed under the guarantee of the contracting Powers, but with no separate right of intervention in their affairs. Out of Moldavia and Wallachia united, after various internal changes, there subsequently grew the kingdom of Roumania. The existing position of Servia was secured by the treaty. During time of peace the Sultan engaged to admit no foreign ships of war into the Bosphorus or the Dardanelles.

To guarantee Turkey from the enemy they most feared, a tripartite treaty was afterward agreed to between England, France, and Austria. This document bears date in Paris April 15, 1856; by it the contracting

parties guaranteed jointly and severally the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and declared that any infraction of the general treaty of March 30 would be considered by them as *casus belli*. The Congress of Paris was remarkable for the fact that the plenipotentiaries before separating came to an agreement on the rules generally of maritime war by which privateering was abolished. It was agreed, however, that the rules adopted at the Congress of Paris would only be binding on those States that had acceded or should accede to them. The United States raised some difficulty about renouncing the right of privateering, and the declarations of the Congress were therefore made without America's assenting to them. At the instigation of Count Cavour the condition of Italy was brought before the Congress; and there can be no doubt that out of the Congress and the part that Sardinia assumed as representative of Italian nationality came the succession of events which ended in the establishment of a King of Italy in the palace of the Quirinal. The adjustment of the condition of the Danubian principalities, too, engaged much attention and discussion, and a highly ingenious arrangement was devised for the purpose of keeping those provinces from actual union, so that they might be coherent enough to act as a rampart against Russia, without being so coherent as to cause Austria any alarm for her own somewhat disjointed, not to say distracted, political system. All these artificial and com-

*Turkey's
integrity
safe-
guarded.*

*Italy's
condition
brought
before the
Congress.*

*The
Danubian
principal-
ties.*

plex arrangements presently fell to pieces, and the principalities became in course of no very long time a united independent State under a hereditary Prince. But for the hour it was hoped that the independence of Turkey and the restriction of Russia, the security of the Christian provinces, the neutrality of the Black Sea, and the closing of the Straits against war vessels, had been bought by the war.

England's losses of men and money.

England lost some twenty-four thousand men in the war, of whom hardly a sixth fell in battle or died of wounds. Cholera and other diseases gave grim account of the rest. Forty-one millions of money were added by the campaign to the National Debt.

THE BATTLE OF INKERMAN

(A.D. 1854)

A. W. KINGLAKE

THE outlines of the fight—like those of Mount Inkerman itself—are indented and jagged, but well marked.

First Period.—Coming up from the West under Soimonoff, and from the East under Panloff, 40,000 assailants moved forward under so thick a cover of darkness and mist that, by no greater effort than that of driving in an outlying picket, General Soimonoff was able to plant on Shell Hill a powerful artillery supported by heavy bodies of foot. From the commanding position thus rapidly seized, and now guarded by sixteen battalions, twenty other battalions, with a strength of 15,000 men, were thrown forward to attack General Pennefather along his whole front, while a force called the “Under-road column” moved up unobstructed by the bed of the Careenage Ravine, in order to turn his left flank. On his right for some time the enemy triumphed; he seized three of our guns; he drove from the field a

*Outline of
the fight.*

5:45 A.M.
to 7:30 A.M.

bewildered body of nearly 400 foot; and, meanwhile, with the Under-road column he successfully turned the position, coming up by the Well-way at last to within a stone's throw of Pennefather's tents.

Then, however, all changed; and the mist, which had thus far protected the enemy, began to favor our people, by taking from the many their power of rightly wielding big numbers, from the few their sense of weakness. It resulted that (with the aid of some batteries) 3,300 of our infantry, under Pennefather and Buller, found means to defeat with great slaughter, and even to expunge from the battlefield the whole of the 15,000 men who had assaulted their front, and, moreover, proved able to rout the Under-road column at a moment when it was driving into the very camp of the 2d Division.

The number of Russian officers struck down was appallingly great; and General Soimonoff himself fell mortally wounded.

Second Period.—General Dannenberg, now coming up, assumed the command, and began to act with fresh troops. By attacking not only the front of the English position, but also the valueless ledge surmounted by the Sandbag Battery, he challenged his adversaries to meet him in two separate combats; and our soldiery, believing—though wrongly—that the dismantled work must be a part of the English defences, fastened on it with so eager a hold, that Lord Raglan—in the midst of close

*Tide turns
against the
Russians.*

*General
Dannen-
berg takes
command.*

*7:30 A.M.
to 8:30 A.M.*

fighting—could not even attempt to withdraw them. The mistake long continued to work its baneful effects; and the combatant part of the English force (now augmented by the accession of fresh troops) divided itself into two unconnected assemblages, with a dangerous gap between them. In one of the two simultaneous fights thus provoked—that is, the one in front of Home Ridge—General Pennefather, with very scant means, proved able to hurl back every onset; while in the fight for the Sandbag Battery, after long and obstinate struggles, our people drove down the whole multitude which had swarmed on the ledge of the Kitspur; but then, helplessly, they went on to do more, achieving what I have called a “false victory” over the left wing of the Russian army. Excepting only a few score of men with difficulty restrained from pursuit, they all of them poured down the steeps, attacking or chasing the enemy, became dispersed in the copsewood, and in this way annulled for a time their power of rendering fresh services.

Russian troops, it was suddenly found, had moved up unopposed through the Gap, and the few score of English still remaining on the heights then seemed to be entirely cut off, yet proved able to fight their way home.

For some time, the two French battalions which had come up would take no part in the fight; but one of them—the 6th of the Line—moved forward at length with good will against the flank of a Russian force then advancing along the Fore Ridge. The enemy thus threat-

*Mistakes of
the English
soldiery.*

*Backward-
ness of
the French.*

ened fell back, and the French battalion victoriously made good its advance to ground on the west of the Kitspur.

Thus the efforts the enemy made in the course of this Second Period resulted, after all, in discomfiture; but by the continued necessity for guarding our left, by Pennefather's still ardent propensity to fight out in front of his heights, and now finally by the losses and the dispersions sustained on the Kitspur, the number of English foot-soldiers that could be mustered for the immediate defence of Home Ridge was brought down to diminutive proportions.

Third Period.—That immediate defence of their position, for which our people were thus ill provided, became the very problem in hand. The enemy, concentrating his efforts upon one settled purpose, delivered a weighty attack upon the Home Ridge, now almost denuded of English infantry, but guarded by the 7th Léger—a battalion 900 strong. His advanced troops broke over the crest, obtained some signal advantages over both the English and French, and then, upon being better confronted, began to fall back; but the bulk of the assailing masses had not ceased to advance all this while, and was soon ascending the Ridge. Then with the 7th Léger, with a truant little band of Zouaves, and with a few of our own people whom he could gather around him, General Pennefather, after a singular struggle which hung for some minutes in doubt, found

*Weighty
attack on
the Home
Ridge.*

means to defeat the great columns thus attacking his centre; and, the collateral forces brought up on the right and on the left being almost simultaneously overthrown by other portions of our infantry, and in part also, too, by our guns, the whole multitude of our troops which had undertaken his onslaught was triumphantly swept forward into the Quarry Ravine.

Fourth Period.—The Allies having no troops in hand with which to press their advantage, the enemy very soon rallied, and with some vigor turned on his pursuers. The French 6th of the Line had been already driven back from our right front, and our people engaged at the centre were more or less losing ground, when the accession of the two 18-pounders, ordered up by Lord Raglan, put an end all at once to the ascendancy of the Russians in the artillery arm, and began to tear open that stronghold on the crest of Shell Hill which had hitherto furnished the basis for all their successive attacks.

When in this condition of things General Bosquet approached with fresh troops, there seemed to be ground for believing that the end of the fight must be near.

Fifth Period.—When Bosquet's acceding reinforcements had brought up his infantry on Mount Inkerman to a strength of 3,500, he was induced to advance with a great part of this force to the false position of the Inkerman Tusk. Upon the approach of a Russian column moving up to ground on his left, where he fancied the

*The enemy
rallies.*

9:15 A.M.
to 10 A.M.

*Bosquet
brings rein-
forcements.*

10 A.M. to
11 A.M.

English stood posted, he was forced to retreat in great haste with the loss of a gun; and, some Russian battalions appearing in another direction, it was only by a swift spring to the rear that his troops, drawn up on the Tusk, proved able to make good their escape. The 1,500 French troops disposed on Bosquet's left rear fell back behind the Home Ridge; and, the cavalry which Canrobert brought up to cover the retreat being driven from the field by some shells, all this succession of adverse occurrences seemed threatening to end in disaster. The French troops became disconcerted, and the allies were from this cause in jeopardy.

*Vigorous
British
defence.*

Their weakness, however, was masked by the vigor of the English defence, maintained all this while at the Barrier, as well as by the might of the two 18-pounders; and, General Dannenberg not seizing his opportunity, the despondency of the French passed away.

Upon the accession of yet further reinforcements, General Bosquet resumed the offensive, and with two of his battalions he not only defeated that agile Selinghinsk regiment which had once more climbed the Kitspur, but drove it down over the aqueduct, and out of the Inkerman battlefield. He also withdrew both the 7th Léger and the 6th of the Line from their shelter behind the Home Ridge, and again sent them forward, but they moved by the course of the Post-road, and there had the English in front of them.

Then the share of the French infantry in this Inkerman conflict was unaccountably brought to a close.

Sixth Period.—While still minded to hold fast their respective positions on Mount Inkerman, both the Russians and the French now abandoned the offensive; but our people, still disputing the victory which Canrobert would thus concede to his adversaries, maintained the fight two hours longer without the aid of French infantry, passed gradually from their old attitude of aggressive defence to one of decisive attack, and at length, by the united power of Lord Raglan's two 18-pounders and a small daring band of foot-soldiery, put so sharp a stress on Dannenberg, that—without consulting Prince Menschikoff—he determined at once to retreat.

The French cease fighting.

Seventh Period.—No pursuit worth recording took place, and General Dannenberg's retreat being accomplished at eight o'clock in the evening, the action came to an end.

1 P.M. to 8 P.M.

From this fight on Mount Inkerman there resulted, it seems, to the enemy a loss of 10,729 in killed, wounded and prisoners. Among his killed or wounded there were six generals; and, if Russian grades were like ours, the number might be stated at twelve; for, besides Soimonoff and Villebois, and Ochterlonè, and the rest of the six stricken chiefs having actual rank as generals, there were slain or wounded six other officers who each of them held a command extending over thousands of men. The

*The
Russians
retreat.*

*Russian
losses.*

*Losses of
the English.*

enemy lost altogether 256 officers. Bringing fifty battalions to Mount Inkerman, he kept sixteen in reserve, and all those to the last remained sound; but in the thirty-four fighting battalions with which he delivered his successive attacks, dire havoc was wrought. Twelve of them were all but annihilated; and twelve more were so shattered and beaten as to become for the time nearly powerless, leaving not more than ten out of the whole thirty-four which continued to be at all fit for combat; and even in those—but more especially in the four Okhotsk battalions, where the “killed” exceeded the “wounded”—the losses were ruinously great.

In proportion to what they achieved, the losses of the English were moderate, but great, very great, in comparison with their scanty numbers. Out of a strength of only 7,464 infantry collected on Mount Inkerman, with 200 cavalry and 38 guns, they lost in killed and wounded, 2,357, of whom 597 were killed. Of their officers, 130 were struck, 39 being killed and 91 wounded.

It is believed that of the Guards, engaged in their false position by the Sandbag Battery, nearly a half were killed or wounded in the space of an hour; and in the right wing of the 21st Fusiliers—a body which fought in the centre—the proportion of losses proved even more huge; while in the 20th and 57th regiments it was not much less. Because fighting for the most part in scanty numbers, the combatants of the 2d Division were able

to carry on their lengthened struggle from the hour before daybreak to one in the afternoon without losing more than about three-eighths of their strength; and in the companies of the 77th under Egerton, which exerted a great sway over the course of events, the proportion of killed and wounded was about one-fifth.

Besides Lord Raglan and the principal officers of the Headquarters Staff, there were ten English generals who came into action on Mount Inkerman, and these ten, with five other chiefs who succeeded to divisional or brigade commands (thus making altogether fifteen), were, all of them, either killed or wounded, or had their horses shot under them. And, with only a single exception, the same may be said of the eighteen colonels or other officers, who brought regiments, or lesser detachments, of foot to Mount Inkerman, and took an active part in the struggle.

*Loss in
command-
ing officer.*

The French stated that their loss on Mount Inkerman comprised 13 officers and 130 men killed, and 36 officers and 750 men wounded. We saw that General Canrobert himself received a wound in the arm and that Colonel de Camas was killed.

The piece of French cannon which the enemy took was left on the battlefield, and recovered after the action. *Losses of
the French.*

[In 1855, De Lesseps plans to cut the isthmus of Suez with a canal. A small civil war breaks out in Kansas.

*Orange
Free State
recognized.*

The independence of the Orange Free State is recognized. The Governor of Eastern Siberia seizes the Amur. Burton and Speke explore Somaliland. In 1856, by the Treaty of Paris, privateering is forbidden; no neutral goods, except contraband of war, are liable to capture under an enemy's flag; and blockades in future must be effective in order to be binding. The province of Oudh is annexed by the English, who also bombard Canton on account of the Chinese having seized an English ship. Burton discovers Tanganyika, Speke discovers the Victoria Nyanza, and Livingstone explores the entire Zambezi. The Neanderthal skull is discovered. The Dred Scott decision is given by the United States Supreme Court. The great Indian Mutiny breaks out. The English and French join against China, whose fleet is destroyed, and Canton is captured. England occupies Perim, and France conquers Algeria.]

END OF VOLUME SIX